

# The Personnel and Guidance Journal

volume 53

number 1

september 1974

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## **In This Issue:**

women returning to school . . .  
blacks and behavior  
modification . . . a counselor  
reminisces . . . poetry in  
group counseling

## **Also:**

*How Eleven Foreign  
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32

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**Manuscripts:** Submit manuscripts to the Editor according to the guidelines that appear in every issue of the JOURNAL.

**Subscriptions:** Available to nonmembers at \$20 per year. Send payment with order to Leola Moore, Subscriptions Manager, APGA.

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**Reprints:** Available in lots of 50 from Publications Sales, APGA. **Back issues:** \$2.00 per single copy for current volume and four volumes immediately preceding from Publications Sales, APGA. **Single issues of earlier volumes:** Available from Walter J. Johnson, Inc., 111 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10003. **Bound volumes:** Available from Publications Sales, APGA. **Microfilm:** University Microfilms, Inc., 313 North First Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48107.

**Indexing:** The JOURNAL's annual index is published in the June issue. The JOURNAL is listed in *Education Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *College Student Personnel Abstracts*, *Sociology of Education Abstracts*, *Personnel Literature*, *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, *Mental Health Book Review Index*, *Poverty and Human Resources*, *Exceptional Child Education Abstracts*, and *Employment Relations Abstracts*. Book reviews are indexed in *Book Review Index*.

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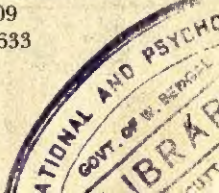
Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered, U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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**S. NORMAN FEINGOLD (1974-75)**

Diary No. 841  
Date 2/1/78  
Bureau Ednl. Pay. Research.

American Personnel and Guidance Association  
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# CHARLES C THOMAS • PUBLISHER

**A LEGAL PERSPECTIVE FOR STUDENT PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATORS** by Robert Laudicina and Joseph Tramutola, both of Fairleigh Dickinson Univ., Madison, New Jersey. The authors, a lawyer and a college administrator, provide a knowledge broad enough to cover most of the trouble areas confronting today's student administrator, yet specific enough to enable him to choose the appropriate course of action. Areas of concentration include: The Student as Dual Citizen: Campus and Civic Responsibilities; Students, Drugs, and the Law; Students, Civil Liberties, and the Law; and Students, Insurance, and the Law. '74, about 176 pp., 2 il.

**DRUG ABUSE IN INDUSTRY: Growing Corporate Dilemma.** Edited by Jordan M. Scher, Executive Director of the National Council on Drug Abuse, Chicago. (35 Contributors) A broad spectrum of drugs ranging from heroin and marijuana to amphetamines and alcohol is explored in this volume. The problems relating to drug abuse in industry are examined. Serious thefts, accidents, poor work performance, chronic absenteeism and lowered company morale and loyalty are examples of these problems. '73, 336 pp., 1 il., 6 tables, \$11.95

**COUNSELING HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS: Special Problems and Approaches** edited by John G. Cull, Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville, and Richard E. Hardy, Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond. (11 Contributors) This book makes a very basic contribution to the field of counseling high school students as it covers special problem areas such as: noncollege-bound adolescents; job readiness; group counseling in the school setting; career counseling — a now and future thing. '74, about 235 pp., 3 il.

**DRUG ABUSE IN INDUSTRY** by Pasquale A. Carone and Leonard W. Krinsky, both of South Oaks Hospital, Amityville, Long Island. The text is principally concerned with: the neuropathology of drug abuse; the pathological autopsy findings as presented by a medical examiner; the probation and law enforcement role in dealing with the drug-using employee; the psychiatric aspects of drug abuse/addiction; the role of the company medical director in the detection and treatment of the drug-using employee; treatment facilities in a hospital setting; and the state programs for drug-using employees. '73, 192 pp. (6 3/4 x 9 3/4), 1 il., 4 tables, \$11.50

**VOLUNTEERISM: An Emerging Profession.** Edited by John G. Cull, Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville, and Richard E. Hardy, Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond. Topics covered include: Opportunities for Voluntary Action, A Description of Some Federal Programs in Volunteerism, Recruiting and Training of Volunteers, Supervising Volunteers, Planning and Community Organization, and Reconciling Community Conflict, Research and Communication Needs in Volunteerism, and The Future of Voluntary Action. '74, 220 pp., 1 il., \$9.75

**THE MYTH OF THE GOLDEN YEARS: The Socio-Environmental Theory of Aging** by Jaber F. Gubrium, Marquette Univ. The socio-environmental theory is used by the author to systematically address many of the major issues of old age and aging. The socio-environmental approach is an attempt to integrate and evaluate the mass of data collected about the elderly and the various practices used by practitioners and professionals in dealing with them. '73, 244 pp., 5 il., cloth-\$9.75, paper-\$6.75

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# The Personnel and Guidance Journal®

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Volume 53, Number 1, September 1974

## ARTICLES

|                                                                                                           |    |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| The Needs of Women Returning to School<br><i>Judith Berman Brandenburg</i> .....                          | 11 |
| Black Concern with Behavior Modification<br><i>Harold R. Bardo, Seymour L. Bryson, John J. Cody</i> ..... | 20 |
| A Counselor and Change: Reminiscences and Resolutions<br><i>Zander Ponzo</i> .....                        | 27 |
| The Poem as Catalyst in Group Counseling<br><i>Johanna W. Lessner</i> .....                               | 33 |
| GUIDANCE U.S.A.: VIEWS FROM ABROAD<br><i>Edited by Leo Goldman</i> .....                                  | 40 |

## IN THE FIELD

|                                                                                                       |    |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Training Student Volunteers<br><i>Ursula Delworth, Marv Moore, Julie Millick, Patrick Leone</i> ..... | 57 |
| Academic Advising Reaches Out<br><i>Gordon B. Stein, Henry A. Spille</i> .....                        | 61 |
| Three Practices to Reach Students<br><i>Henry Zacharias Rosner</i> .....                              | 65 |

## FACTS ABOUT APGA

|                                       |    |
|---------------------------------------|----|
| Activities of the Association .....   | 80 |
| APGA Board of Directors 1974-75 ..... | 82 |

## POEMS

|                                                              |    |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Counseling Jabberwocky<br><i>Natalie Wilson Miller</i> ..... | 19 |
| Stat Static<br><i>Hyrum H. Huskey, Jr.</i> .....             | 26 |
| Patchwork<br><i>Samuel T. Gladding</i> .....                 | 39 |

## DEPARTMENTS

|                              |    |
|------------------------------|----|
| Feedback .....               | 4  |
| Editorial .....              | 9  |
| Research in Counseling ..... | 68 |
| Etcetera .....               | 71 |
| Book Reviews .....           | 74 |
| Guidelines for Authors ..... | 84 |



# Feedback

Letters for Feedback should be under 300 words. Those selected for publication may be edited or abridged by the Journal staff.

## A Different View of the Ohio License . . .

I agree with the intent of the Sweeney-Sturdevant article ("Licensure in the Helping Professions: Anatomy of an Issue," May 1974 P&G), but I deplore the authors' lack of attention to accuracy of statement. They imply that few people "had an opportunity to study the [Ohio psychology licensing] law before it was enacted" (p. 576). Fact: Many of us in the Ohio Psychological Association had been working for legislation for at least 14 years. The proposed law was published in the *Ohio Psychologist* and in the Ohio School Psychologists Association Newsletter. Additional copies were widely disseminated. Public meetings for discussion of the bill were held throughout Ohio—including Sweeney and Sturdevant's own Ohio University campus in Athens.

They state that the governor, in making appointments to the Ohio Board of Psychology, "is instructed to select representatives from lists of names tendered by the Ohio Psychological Association (OPA) and the Ohio School Psychologists Association (OSPA)" (p. 576). Totally false. OPA and OSPA can make nominations—so can any other group or individual! Far from being bound to appoint from these lists, the governor did in fact select either three or four (of the six psychologists) who were on *neither* list. And the OPA Board, to my personal knowledge, spent many hours in drafting a representative list of at least 25 appropriate people.

They express concern (alarm? surprise?) that the Board adopted the American Psychological Association's "ethical standards for psychologists." Why? Should the Board have chosen the ethical code of morticians? Of registered nurses? (The Board did study the standards of other professional organizations, including APGA.)

Just a bit of thought would have made them realize the falsity of their assertion that "the Board . . . has the power to determine who needs a license to practice, what ethical practice is, and under what circumstances to issue,

deny, or revoke a license" (p. 576). The Board can only *interpret* the law; anyone can seek redress under the law by appealing—courts *determine* such matters.

Because of space limitations for letters, I cannot go into further detail here; however, I will have published a more complete reply to the irresponsible Sweeney-Sturdevant article in the *Ohio Psychologist* (July 1974 issue). Anyone wishing a reprint of my reply should write to me at the Department of Psychology, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio 45221.

HOWARD B. LYMAN  
Editor, *Ohio Psychologist*

## . . . And a Reply by the Authors

We welcome the opportunity to respond to Lyman's comments.

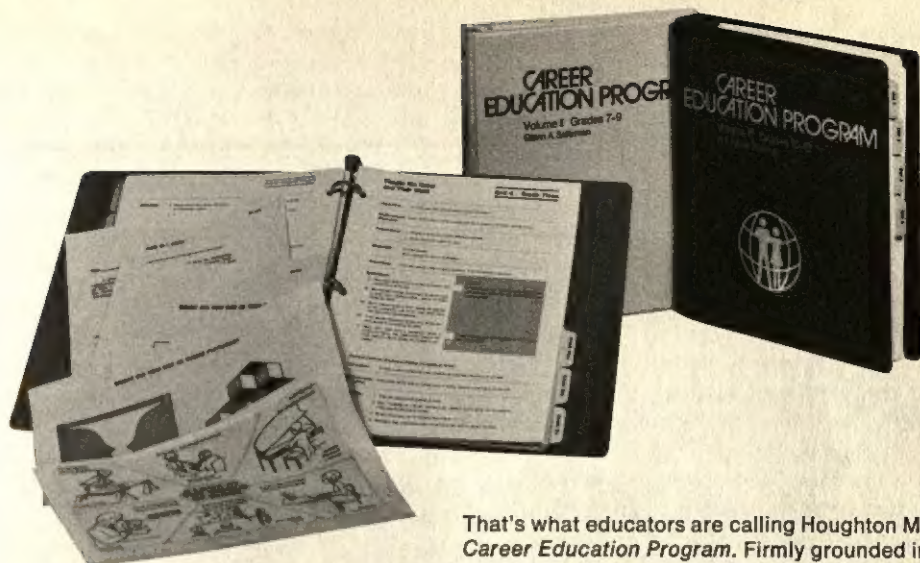
Concerning dissemination of the proposed law: We believe that we are essentially correct. Nonmembers of OPA and OSPA (e.g., the Ohio University counselor education staff) were not aware of meetings on the bill before its passage.

Regarding appointments to the Board: Lyman's point is well taken. The law states, "The Governor may make such appointments from lists submitted annually by the Ohio Psychological Association and by the Ohio School Psychologists Association" (Ohio Revised Code, Sec. 4732.02). It does not say he *must* select from these lists. However, no other group or means of submitting nominees is mentioned.

Regarding ethical standards: We did not express concern that the Board adopted APA's ethical standards, nor did we imply that other ethical standards should have been adopted instead. We merely pointed out that the ethical statements now have legal implications.

Regarding the influence of the Board to issue, deny, or revoke a license: We realize that persons sanctioned under the law may seek redress through the courts. We also realize that such proceedings may be lengthy, expensive, and injurious to one's livelihood.





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Concerning our irresponsibility: The senior author submitted the essence of the article to the Board in public testimony on October 19, 1973. No correction, question, or rebuttal was received prior to submitting the article for publication.

We appreciate Lyman's agreement with the intent of our article; our desire is to seek responsible action by counselors. More effective dialogue and cooperation among the helping professions are obviously needed. We would welcome an opportunity to address the OPA membership through the *Ohio Psychologist* in an effort to promote understanding and common goals.

In a position paper prepared after submission of the article and presented to the APGA membership in New Orleans, the senior author noted the positive, admirable aspects of psychologists' legislative efforts. Hopefully, counselors will emulate their efforts and, together with psychologists, work to enhance public confidence in the helping professions.

THOMAS J. SWEENEY

ALAN D. STURDEVANT  
Ohio University, Athens

#### **Competence and Opinions**

In "Integrating Humanism and Behaviorism: Toward Performance" (April 1974) Darrell Smith talks about two phases of counselor training as (a) self-awareness and (b) technical training. He seems to imply that the counselor educators should judge the level of personal competence of the students. I feel that a certain amount of bias may be expected from the counselor educator and suggest that joint goal setting and competence evaluations be part of the process, not just possible one-sided evaluations. I would also support the training of counselors in the technical aspects of counseling through the use of role playing and modeling behavior as a sufficient index of the counselor flexibility and competence. If a person is able to learn the techniques and skills and can show his performance on videotape and audiotape, I do not see that additional feedback on counselor performance is needed. I also feel that the students in these simulation situations would find out how they feel in the settings enough to decide themselves whether or not to continue.

I understand that measures of performance cannot be readily inferred from measures of verbal behavior often present in

traditional counselor education programs. Structured behavioral learning experiences can provide sufficient information on the student to indicate his promise. This allows quality counselor education without the counselor educator's presuming to pass on the legitimacy of student values and beliefs that may differ from those of the counselor educator.

J. J. FALKENHAN  
Norfolk, Virginia

#### **A Shotgun Marriage**

Concerning Darrell Smith's article "Integrating Humanism and Behaviorism: Toward Performance": So long as the helping professions propose to "transcend the physical self and the confining limits of here-and-now existence" while at the same time seeking empirical blessing on their efforts, they will have to suffer on the horns of the dilemma on which they have placed themselves.

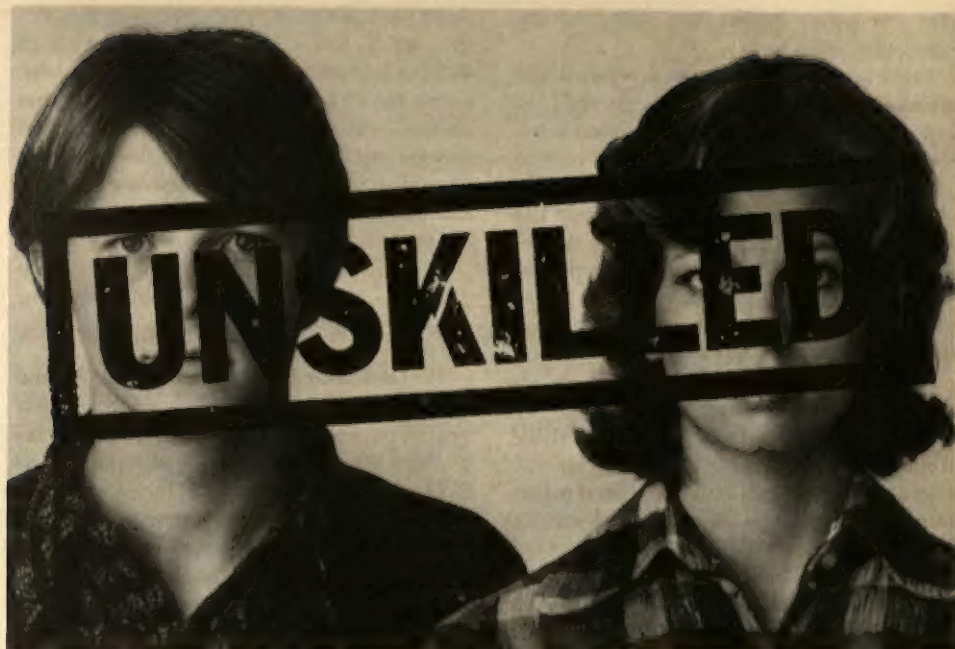
What is proposed is a shotgun marriage of humanism and behaviorism, purely as an arrangement of convenience, while recognizing the lack of mutual love and respect. One can only hope the mismatched pair will foal a human being. They do, at least, have something in common. Both contemporary humanistic psychology—in its shimmery, psychedelic, transcendental dress—and radical behaviorism—explicitly mindless and spiritless—are shallow, single-valued philosophies. May their progeny regress toward the mean.

W. A. PEMBERTON  
University of Delaware  
Newark, Delaware

#### **Admissions Counselors, Not Recruiters**

The Sheffield-Meskill article on admissions counselors ("Admissions Counselors or Recruiters?" in the April 1974 P&G) stimulates me to write a few lines of feedback. I disagree with their basic assumption that one person cannot fulfill the role of counselor and "recruiter." An admissions officer with some sense of ethics and counseling training can both represent his institution enthusiastically (and honestly) and "assume the internal frame of reference of the client." The two functions, that of communicating the goals and environment of a college and that of exploring options from the prospective applicant's viewpoint, are not mutually exclusive. Every counselor must assume responsi-





## It's a terrifying word.

We don't think we have to belabor that point with any guidance counselor. Today, the young people who have to face life without post-high school technical and/or academic training are handicapped. Worse yet, if that need is allowed to continue through early adulthood it can become a lifelong disability.

No one, however, stays unskilled very long in the Air Force. By nature we are a high-skill, technically-oriented organization. We couldn't function unless we gave our people the finest training available.

Consequently, the Air Force maintains one of the broadest total-education programs in existence. If high school graduates come to us wishing to be trained in any technical field, they should be able to find it among more than 250 types of Air Force jobs.

If they come to us not certain of where their gifts lie, we owe it to them to find out. And we do. We believe we have a job that will fit the talents—hidden or otherwise—of any young man or woman you are guiding. That's why our people wind up with a marketable skill upon return to civilian life.

There is another major dimension to Air Force training: the Community College of the Air Force, which offers a Career Education Certificate in any more than 80 job-related specialty areas. The semester hours required for the Certificate (minimum 64) are accrued through both Air Force technical training courses accredited by either the Southern Association or the North Central Accrediting Association of Secondary Schools, and by off-duty education at civilian colleges and universities.

In brief, no young man or woman who has received the benefits of the Air Force career education program should ever again risk the danger of being branded "unskilled."

If you'd like to become familiar with the total breadth of our Air Force educational programs, simply write: Air Force Educational Affairs, Box A, Randolph AFB, TX 78148. Or request the data from your local Air Force Recruiter.

**The Air Force**  
Lending Wings To Education



bility for some information-giving in the counseling process.

There is another important function of the admissions office which requires the ability to acquire the applicant's viewpoint. That function is the communication to the college faculty of the needs and perceptions of the high school senior. The picture I get of the recruiter from the article is one of single-minded selling of an institution, eyes and ears closed to all else. Filling a freshman class is much different from meeting a military recruitment quota or selling cars.

I sincerely hope the advice to college administrators contained in this article will fall on deaf ears. If the student is to be served, we need more counselors and fewer "recruiters." Those institutions that give the highest priority to *students'* growth and education will, in the long run, survive.

EDWARD T. CARINE, JR.

College Entrance Examination Board  
Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

#### **The NNPI Discriminates**

I have studied the Loesch and Johnson article ("The NNPI: In Sickness or in Health") in the April 1974 issue of the *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL*. I find the rationale invigorating. The instrument development was informative. The conclusion was nothing less than inspiring.

A test cannot be considered a success, however, unless it faces charges of discrimination. In this case I find the test badly biased. Specifically, questions 8, 14, 16, 19, 20, 22, 29, and 34 are most insulting for people over 40. It is obvious that those who developed the instrument were unaware of a large segment of the population.

It seems necessary to do further research on the test-retest reliability using an interval of 39 years. Please feel free to contact me in this time period if you require further assistance in this matter.

RUTH TWITCHELL

Vero Beach Elementary School  
Vero Beach, Florida

#### **It Takes One to Know One**

Having the doubly dubious distinction of having both Dr. Loesch and Dr. Johnson for advisors, I was considerably impressed by their scientific expedition into the psyche (psychic?).

The only dent that I could detect in the discourse (Johnson likes alliteration) was the

motivational factors that preceded this endeavor. In order to get cheap labor, both authors tacked on their norming instrument to the fall 1973 faculty evaluation sheet that all the students answer. I am surprised that they did not give recognition to the truth that this valuable new device was born out of the fact that each student added to the bottom of the test, "It takes one to know one."

NANCY SLICNER SPISSO

Doctoral student  
University of Florida, Gainesville

#### **Counselor First, Political Activist Second**

With two such learned gentlemen as Drapela and Adams expounding their philosophies ("Counselors, Not Political Agitators" and "Whose Cannon Fodder?" in the March 1974 P&G), the client would seem to have a choice of widely divergent and politically antithetical points of view. However, in all of the material they have presented on both sides of the debate, they have said nothing, I repeat *nothing*, about what the client wants out of the relationship! While Drapela works to "adjust" his clients to the idea of gradual change and Adams exhorts his clients to radical revolution, who is listening to hear what the client wants?

Realizing that we have a long-term responsibility as "change agents" in our society, I must keep in mind that, as a counselor, I have a "here-and-now" responsibility to my clients. The person who comes to us for help does not want "pie-in-the-sky" solutions to society's problems. He or she wants and deserves real help with real problems *now!*

If a person is having trouble relating to others, that person is likely to have as much trouble relating to communist others as capitalist others—perhaps different troubles manifested in different ways, but troubles nonetheless. Something has to be done about the internal as well as external environment. We are ethically bound first to consider the needs of our clients, not our own needs.

When we are entrusted with the delicate mechanism of a person's mind, we owe it to that person to ensure that trust is not subverted by our personal biases. I am a counselor first and a political activist of whatever persuasion second; or I am a political activist first and a counselor not at all.

ALLEN C. MILLER

Chula Vista, California



# Editorial

## INTRODUCING VOLUME 53: SOME NEW SOLUTIONS

We begin Volume 53 with some optimism about the JOURNAL. Although there are many unknowns as I write these words at the end of May, there are also some knowns, and most of them are good news, I think.

First, we begin the year with an accumulation of some good accepted manuscripts, enough that we are moving back up to the 80-page standard issue rather than the 64-pager that was typical during these past two lean years. There is no assurance that we will be able to carry through the year with the thicker issue, because we will continue our policy of publishing no more pages than we can fill with tightly edited content that we believe is really worth your time to read.

Next, we should have several good Special Features and Special Issues in this volume. At this writing, the first two are well along the way—a Special Feature on correctional counseling in October and a Special Issue on paraprofessionals in counseling scheduled for December. Proposals for other specials are moving along, and we expect that two more of them will be in print by the end of this volume year.

Faithful readers of the Feedback section know that there has been some heat—and some light too—about the place of research in P&G. I have felt all along that we should try to bring interpretations of research to our readers, but I have also felt that the traditional technical research report does not really fulfill that function for practitioners. Now it appears that the letters and the editorials have paid off. In this issue we bring you the first column by Richard Warner in which, briefly and nontechnically, he reviews the research in an area and discusses the implications for counselors. We expect that the column will appear at least five times a year, and more frequently if Dick Warner is able to swing it. He is well qualified for this assignment, having served as a school counselor and presently serving as a professor. P&G readers may remember him as one of the authors cited in the Best Articles of the Year awards for 1972–73, for his article “Preventing Drug Abuse: Where Are We Now?”—itself one of the few research reviews we have found suitable for publication.

Other authors have taken on the challenge too, and we have in hand now two accepted articles on research topics, one a report of a truly meaningful large-scale study of the career development needs of youth and the other a how-to-do-it on applied research for counselors. The revision of still another article is awaited at this writing, that one a review of research on women, with implications for counselors. As in Warner's case, here again are people who are helping to bridge the gap between research and practice by undertaking a very difficult kind of writing.



Each year at this time we welcome new members of the Editorial Board. This year again we continued our effort to have among the sixteen members of the Board representation of the various interest groups within APGA, as well as appropriate coverage by sex, race, and section of the country. (Sharp-eyed readers may spot an unusual concentration of Board members in Maryland this year. No trend this, just the result of mobility: Two of the four Maryland members were in the Midwest when appointed to the Board and just recently moved.)

The new Board members joining us at this time are George E. Ayers, Ursula Delworth, Judith A. Lewis, Robert E. Lindberg, Thomas M. Magoon, Alfred Stiller, and Joseph Stubbins. Several of them are primarily practitioners, and among them are represented school, college, and rehabilitation specialties and a variety of interests.

I am especially pleased that my last year as editor will be in the company of people like these and that during this year we will be further innovating in this medium of communication among the many people who together make up our field—the firing-line practitioners, their supervisors and professors, the researchers and theorists, and those who are active in professional association work. Many of us function in more than one of these roles, but every one of them is needed if we are to build and maintain the kind of profession that will make significant contributions to society in the years ahead. ■ LG



Judith Berman Brandenburg is Assistant Professor and Counseling Psychologist, Department of Student Personnel, Queens College of the City University of New York.

## the needs of women returning to school

*Many women who have experienced an extended interruption in their formal education find that their decision to return to school is both serious and significant. This article describes the special needs of women returning to school and analyzes these needs on both psychological and practical levels. The author offers suggestions about how colleges in general and student personnel workers in particular might help meet these needs, and she highlights programs and practices developed at one college. The discussion is based primarily on the experiences of women who are regular matriculated day session students at an urban commuter college. Observations are drawn from interviews, group discussions, and a questionnaire.*

One of the most significant changes in the composition of the undergraduate college population is the recent appearance of substantial numbers of women returning to school as regular matriculated students. These women return after an interruption in their formal education and appear to be highly motivated and achieving students (Richter & Whipple 1972). However, they bring to the college setting their own conflicts, fears, and needs.

Many of these women return to school during "middle motherhood." This time, typically between the ages of 35 and 40 but actually related more to situation than to age, is gaining increasing attention as a critical period for women. It is often a time of renewed identity crisis and a second important period for career exploration (Bart 1972; Manis &

Mochizuki 1972). Particularly for the married woman who has a family but holds no job, demands on time and energy are reduced during this period, when her children are in school and her husband is involved in a career. Resulting feelings of being less needed or less useful, together with the pressure of advancing age, generate serious questions for this woman. She finds herself asking: Who am I? What do I do with my time? Why am I depressed? Why do I feel I have failed? For many such women, an attempt to deal with these questions results in the decision to return to school. On the other hand, some women who return to school for the very pragmatic purpose of earning a few credits or taking a particular course then become stimulated to think about these questions as a result of their schooling. The needs of women resuming their formal education at this period in their lives must be understood and viewed in this context.

This article deals with the needs of such women and offers some suggestions as to how colleges, particularly student personnel workers, might meet these needs. Included are some practices that have been tried at one college as well as suggestions for other solutions that might prove valuable. Particular attention is paid to a student group, Women Involved in New Goals (WING), which has started at Queens College of the City University of New York and which continues to develop activities, practices, and programs for meeting these women's needs.



WING was organized in an attempt to assess and meet the needs of women returning to school. This was done at a time and in a setting in which there was no special awareness of women who returned as regular matriculated students. WING offers these women an opportunity to develop friendships with peers, discuss problems, gain support, and obtain information specific to their needs. As a student organization, it satisfies the need most frequently stressed by women returning to school: to meet others in the same situation. WING is run by a committee of four students under the coordination of the author, who is a member of the faculty and the counseling staff. Through two-hour weekly meetings and through workshops, speakers, and special programs, WING members consider such issues as personal concerns about guilt and dependency, sex discrimination, and career development. Aspects of the WING program and its functioning are mentioned here as they apply.

### THE RETURNING WOMEN

Discussions here are based largely on observations of women who, after an interruption in their formal education, returned to school as matriculated day session students at Queens College, a commuter college in a large urban area. These women are members of the regular undergraduate student population and, with few exceptions, have not returned through special programs for mature students. Approximately 200 of these women have been seen by me, either in my role in the college counseling service or my role in initiating and coordinating WING. Observations are based on individual interviews, group discussions, and questionnaires completed by some of the women.

The average age of these women was 38, with a range from 23 to 53. Almost all of them were married and had children. Typically they had had some previous formal education beyond high school,

and most had been out of school for at least 15 years. Many of them said they had discontinued their education in order to marry and raise children; a few said it was because of financial need or a lack of interest in school. All had had some type of work experience, paid or volunteer, outside the home during the period they were not attending school. The type of work they engaged in was almost exclusively in areas traditionally pursued by women—secretarial, book-keeping, and clerical jobs.

### PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS

One item of a questionnaire given to some of the women posed this question: What do you see as your goals or reasons for returning to school? The following answers suggest some of the psychological needs of women returning to school; they reflect the significance of the decision to return and the critical nature of the middle motherhood period. The women said: "I wanted to grow up and find my own identity." "I need constructive interests outside the home." "I desire self-fulfillment." "I want self-improvement, confidence, my own identity." "I'm feeling stagnant and want a meaningful career." "I need to find myself as a person." "I seek financial independence, meaningful employment."

These women need to find understanding and support with respect to the importance and difficulty of their decision to continue their education. In the words of one woman, "I'm scared! I want to do well—better than I did before. It's my second chance, and I must make it—not only to prove to myself that I can do it, but my whole future is at stake."

### Relationships with Others

Many of these women have for a long time been subverting their own needs and interests to those of others. Frequently they have gone from being dependent on their parents to being de-



pendent on their husbands and have therefore not developed their own identities. According to Lopata (1971) and Self (1969), this dependency may produce resentment toward self and family, fear of taking risks, and depression. A resulting lack of confidence may be further reinforced by limited opportunities to achieve success outside of the family. In order to achieve, the women need to develop and strengthen their capacities to assert themselves and to make decisions. These capacities are crucial to learning. The student must be able to read critically, analyze information, attack questions, and assert her own ideas. Problems of dependency and lack of confidence may undermine the entire educational process.

In addition to being uncertain of their ability to achieve and unsure of their goals, many women also face resistance to their return to school from husbands, families, and friends. As soon as the returning student becomes really involved in her schoolwork, some aspect of her life changes. The most common change, at least in this group, was a "sacrifice of housekeeping responsibilities and less time for family and friends." As soon as this change affects other people, there is usually a reaction. Reports by the women indicate several reaction patterns of husbands and families, ranging from continuous open hostility to continuous support. The experience of continued support was comparatively rare among these women; most experienced some degree of resistance to their return to school.

In spite of some of these adverse reactions, many women stressed the eventual improvement of their marriage and family situations as a result of their returning to school. One woman reported, "I have allowed my children to grow up independently and have more respect for them and they for me. Stress and strain has been placed on family life during crises—test time, papers, etc. I have

learned to manage my time better and feel like I am using my time more fully. My husband takes pride in my accomplishments and helps more by encouraging and cooperation." On the other hand, it is hard to determine how many women have been forced to leave school as a result of negative reactions from others.

Differences appear with regard to the effect on children. Mothers reported feeling varying degrees of guilt, and they

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experienced different degrees of resentment and pride from their children. Some said that their return to school resulted in improved relationships with their children; they shared more with the children, and the children achieved greater independence. Others, however, felt increased feelings of competition, especially with older children, together with both increased resentment and regressive behavior on the part of the children.

In addition, many women reported being challenged by friends who were not returning to school. "Why are you neglecting your husband and family?" "What are you getting out of it?" These friends may see a returning woman's reevaluation of her life style as a threat to their own situation. The negative reactions may also arise from a fear that the change will alter the friendship. There are, of course, situations in which no negative reaction is experienced. But regardless of the reactions of others, the woman returning to school may need support and friendship from other women in a similar situation.



## Role of the Counselor

It is crucial that counselors understand the nature and the underlying dynamics of the problems and conflicts of women in this situation. The counselor must "make an all-out effort to understand barriers that women put in front of themselves" (Berry 1972, p. 107) in addition to understanding external barriers that exist. The counselor may need to assist the women in coming to terms with such difficulties as feelings of dependency, self-defeating behavior, and coping with the resistance of husbands, children, and friends.

The women must explore the extent to which they prevent their own success. For example, while her family's negative attitude might genuinely be interfering with a woman's attaining her goals, she must be able to distinguish such real resistance from her projections of resistance, which she might use as an excuse for her inability to make decisions or perform. It may be that the "motive to avoid success" (Horner 1969) is operating within some women, interfering with their intellectual and professional accomplishments.

These women need to analyze and understand the reactions of their husbands and families. This analysis may help the women to decide whether these reactions will change as part of an adjustment process; it may also help them develop methods for functioning and coping with these reactions. Some women may need to explore their own guilt feelings regarding their children and may need to consider the place of self-gratification versus sacrifice for others.

Counselors may find different approaches useful in working with women returning to school. WING has been most successful in conducting a series of small group discussions in which the women deal with general feelings and behavior as well as specific topics. This series provides an opportunity for the women to receive counselor input and to

share with and receive support from others in the same situation. Topics have included: "The Emotional Needs of Returning Women"; "Student, Wife, and Mother"; "Guilt"; and "Coping with Conflict." In some discussions the counselor suggests typical patterns of behavior and conflict. In one discussion, for example, the counselor outlined a possible detrimental relationship between feelings of dependency and the learning process. A woman remarked, "How did you know? That's why I keep getting low grades on papers and comments like 'Where is *your* analysis?' I can't assert myself—or my ideas, for that matter."

As the group gets going, many discussions spring naturally from the members. Most find it invaluable to share their experiences and techniques for coping. "You mean it's not just me?" "I've never admitted this to a soul. . . ." "My family has a nose for test time; even if I don't tell them, they know and start increasing their demands." The relief of knowing that others are also having difficulty in dealing with various stresses is comforting in itself, and the sharing may be a first step in finding solutions. Sometimes role-playing situations with husbands, families, and teachers is employed, stress being placed on assertiveness when appropriate. As a result of group support, some women are encouraged to take more actions independently of men; others resolve conflicts by bringing males into a shared situation. "Encouraging my husband to return to school too has decreased his feeling of threat and his hostility toward my return to school."

A library, bibliography, and film series may also be helpful in motivating discussion and providing emotional support. WING has a small collection of books that are brought to meetings and borrowed on a weekly basis.

This type of group and the experience of returning to school may intensify a woman's awareness of her other prob-



lems. Although some of these problems may be resolved within the group, counselors or student personnel workers who are involved with such a group must be prepared to do their share of individual counseling. They must be particularly aware of the possible dependency needs of the women and avoid reinforcing these needs in the counseling relationship. The professionals who have occasion to work with women returning to school should be aware of their own feelings and biases regarding a woman's role and regarding a woman's decision to combine motherhood with school or a career. The counselor can engage in needed self-examination through inservice courses (Schlossberg & Pietrofesa 1973), consciousness-raising exercises, reading, and discussion.

## **PRACTICAL NEEDS**

Many of the practical or concrete needs experienced by women returning to school are shared by other students on campus. However, the additional stresses on these women and the frequent insensitivity to their needs calls for a special effort on the part of people in higher education.

The uncertainty and insecurity of the women may be exacerbated by college services that are geared for younger students in a different life situation. The women frequently feel much anxiety about using such services, viewing them as being meant for the "kids." Some increase their burdens by feeling that as mature students they shouldn't need to ask counselors, teachers, administrators, or other students for help. "After all, I'm an adult. I should know more, shouldn't need help, should be better organized." Some interpret all discourtesies they experience on campus to be a result of their age or situation. This explanation is sometimes based on reality and is sometimes a projection. There are some returning women, of course, who are quite

experienced and skilled at understanding and using their environment and do not share this particular problem. However, it is important for colleges to be sensitive to the needs and problems of these women and to extend their services to include them. The effort should start at the admissions office and continue through special orientation, financial aid, child care, student activities, and counseling.

## **Admissions and Orientation**

Women's fears and anxieties about returning to school are often reinforced by the typical college admissions procedures. Waters (1971) has highlighted the frustrations, inappropriateness, and absurdity of many existing admissions practices for the woman returning to school. The predictive validity of outdated transcripts and letters of recommendation, and even of results of recently taken entrance examinations stressing skills that may be rusty after a long interruption of formal education, is questionable at best. In fact, some standardized tests, such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test of the College Entrance Examination Board and the Graduate Record Examinations, may actually discriminate against the older woman returning to college.

Better ways are needed to evaluate such women for admission. The possibility of giving "life experience credit" for experience outside the sphere of formal education should be considered. Other ways of giving credit for education obtained in nonformal settings, such as through the College Level Examination Program (CLEP) and the College Proficiency Examination Program (CPEP), should be examined. Meeting the needs of returning women regarding admissions does not imply lowering standards or accepting all mature students. It does, however, suggest more accurate and valid consideration for the person seeking admission.



Some colleges have dealt with these problems by establishing special programs for returning women and instituting admissions procedures that are tailored to the mature student. Paradoxically, there is a growing number of current and prospective students—those described in this article, for example—who choose *not* to be in special programs but prefer to make it in the mainstream of student life. It is primarily for these students that admission practices need to be revised.

Several members of WING have investigated methods of gaining academic

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credit for experience outside the classroom. This information is made available to other women returning to college and is being incorporated into a handbook. Also, a special orientation program for these women has been conducted by WING members. WING meetings are open to women in the community, and several women have been encouraged to return to school with the assistance and support of the WING group.

Another suggestion for dealing with admissions problems of this group of students is to assign a special admissions or student personnel worker to assist them. This worker can help cut through red tape and interpret changes such as those in curriculum and required courses. She or he can evaluate the students' prior academic work and help develop more appropriate admissions criteria and procedures.

## **Financial Aid**

Women returning to school may have special financial problems. These sometimes result from specific stipulations for various scholarships and fellowships that tend to exclude this group. Also, since many women must return on a part-time basis, they are not eligible for much of the existing financial assistance. As one student pointed out, "The vicious cycle is that without funds I must remain part time, but as part time I can only get insufficient funds." Under existing guidelines, many women do not qualify for financial aid because of their husband's income. Unfortunately, this criterion is used even in cases where the woman is not receiving any financial help from her family.

The student personnel worker in the area of financial assistance needs to research special areas and arrangements for financial aid to these women. The workers should apply for special funds and should develop new sources and guidelines for financial aid. The members of WING are developing a file on the limited existing financial aid applicable to returning women. They have contacted some organizations that are potential sources of financial support, and they are periodically in touch with appropriate faculty members in order to obtain new information and to enlighten the faculty about the relevant financial needs of the group.

## **Child Care**

Another need shared by numbers of women is the need for adequate child care. Unfortunately, college-sponsored or college-supported day care facilities are limited or nonexistent in most cases. In the absence of these facilities, several members of WING have developed a list of various child care resources near the college, joined with other campus groups to establish a day care center, tried to set up reciprocal baby-sitting arrangements among those in need, and informed



women of conferences and literature on child care. Student personnel workers should join in enlisting the college's commitment and action in developing appropriate child care for all in need.

### **Academic Skills and Schedules**

An important need suggested by the women studied involves assistance in reestablishing basic academic skills and in scheduling time. Many women, on first returning, feel rusty and inadequate with respect to studying, taking notes, writing papers, using the library, and devising schedules. WING has set up workshops each term for dealing with these problems. Specialists from the college's library, academic skills center, and counseling office, as well as other students who have previously returned to school, share their expertise and experience with those in need. Several WING members are working to inform persons responsible for course scheduling about returning women, whose situation often dictates a preference for courses that meet fewer days a week and at particular hours of the day.

### **Academic and Vocational Counseling**

Although for some women the stimulation of returning to school is an end in itself, the majority of those studied at Queens College were seeking a meaningful career on graduation. Also, many of them experienced pressure from factors associated with time: their age, the restricted pace at which they could take courses, and the fact that in some cases they had only a limited number of credits remaining before graduation and therefore needed to make important academic decisions quickly. Such women need immediate academic and vocational counseling when starting school.

Typically these women return to school with a narrow view of the fields available to them. They would profit from a consideration of the broad range of courses, majors, and occupations pos-

sible. The women want and need to learn the realities of the job market with respect to age and sex. Awareness of the existing conditions should not limit choices but rather encourage realistic decisions and suggest strategies for gaining employment in areas where difficulties exist. A knowledge of placement agencies specializing in positions that meet the special needs of women may be useful to the women both during and after college.

WING invites speakers and sponsors discussions to consider special academic programs at the college, career developments and opportunities, job placement, and alternatives to traditional women's roles. One WING project involves working with the college placement office and alumni association in an attempt to recruit women graduates of the college who would be career consultants. Another project is an attempt to set up an "advocate for returning women" who can communicate the special skills and assets of this group to businesses, schools, and other agencies seeking new personnel.

### **CONCLUSION**

Most of the growing number of women who return to school after an interruption in their formal education view their return as a very serious step. They have distinctive needs on both psychological and practical levels, and meeting these needs may require a special effort on the part of colleges that have been geared to students who arrived directly from high school and who have other types of concerns. It is important for counselors and other student personnel workers to understand the needs of these women, to assist in interpreting these needs to the colleges, and to develop programs, activities, and reforms to meet these needs.

Facilitating the identification of returning women and the development of a student organization such as Women



Involved in New Goals is one approach that has been very successful. This type of organization provides support to returning women and an atmosphere in which they can articulate their needs and work out solutions to their problems. It also provides student personnel workers with some of the contact they need in order to learn more about the women's needs.

It is important that colleges make this effort—not only because more women are returning to school, but also because there has been widespread insensitivity to the needs of these women and because these women constitute a valuable resource that no school or society can afford to neglect. ■

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## Counseling Jabberwocky

'Twas evening, and the chosen few  
Did group and gather in a ring  
To muse on topics old and new  
And learn what talk could bring.

Beware the circle as the norm—  
The shape that numbs, the mode that bores!  
Beware of questioning a form  
The counselor adores!

They seized the subject by the horns;  
Around the ring it worked its way.  
Each took a turn, each sought to learn  
Some insight on that day.

At last the time drew near at hand  
For all their new-learned truths to tell,  
But as they glanced about the band  
An awful silence fell.

'Twas evening, and the chastened few  
Now sat and pondered in the round  
Instead of topics old and new  
A greater truth they'd found.

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# black concern with behavior modification

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*In this article two black psychologists and a white educator explain why the black community should be concerned with and actively involved in behavior modification practices. It is pointed out by use of the Tuskegee study how blacks were used as subjects in a behavior modification study long before these practices became popularized. The concerns specified were that (a) blacks have been and are being used as subjects in behavior modification studies with and without their consent and (b) social value judgments are being made concerning behaviors of blacks without their input. Alternatives are offered for increasing the number of black professionals in the field of behavior modification to help preserve the integrity of the black community.*

The primary purpose of this article is to discuss reasons that blacks should be concerned with and actively involved in practices in behavior modification. For purposes of this discussion, we have used the term *behavior modification* as defined by Sulzer and Mayer (1972): "When the methods of behavioral science and its experimental findings are systematically applied with the intent of altering behavior the technique is called behavior modification" (p. 2). Although we might have used many definitions of behavior modification, this particular one seems to outline best the areas of the technique that are of concern to black psychologists.

It is not the intent of this article to question the effectiveness of behavior modification techniques. The concern is that as these techniques are refined it becomes more important to be sure that blacks are involved at all levels of the application of the procedures when blacks are the subjects of the procedures. A review of the literature indicates that (a) blacks are prime subjects for behavior modification and (b) the application of behavior modification requires the practitioners to make judgments concerning social values. Despite these facts, only a small number of black professionals are identified in the behavior modification literature; and equally important is the fact that they have little input into the value judgments that lead to determining which behaviors are to be eliminated and which are to be learned.

## BLACKS—PRIME SUBJECTS

Historically, blacks have always presented a dilemma to the dominant society. White society has seen black behavior as different, difficult to predict, difficult to control, and often as detrimental to the majority. As a consequence, many white professionals have found black populations ideal for their research purposes. This type of practice



is especially true when one attempts to justify altering another's behavior. Money is often made available to experiment with or to help alleviate problems related to the behavior of blacks in a predominantly white culture. A recent report on the Tuskegee study (Slater 1972) should help to illustrate this point. In this study blacks were used as guinea pigs for the study of syphilis. The experiment was begun before the popularization of behavior modification, but it involved the use of some of what are known today as behavior modification techniques.

In the Tuskegee study, four hundred black men were permitted to suffer from syphilis without treatment. The men apparently became subjects for the study without full knowledge of the intent. They were poor men, made poorer by the depression of the 1930s, and they were offered reinforcements for their participation in the study: free hot lunches, free medical care, free burial services, transportation to and from the hospital, and an opportunity to stop in town on the return trip home to shop or visit with their friends on the street. Our observations have led us to suspect that studies—hopefully not of this severe a nature—are being conducted today without the subjects' knowledge of the intentions of the study or the side effects that might occur as a result of participation.

Today behavior modifiers attempt to prove their worth by working with those populations who are considered problems and with whom other practices have failed. Many of the populations being studied have been classified as "hard to reach." They have been labeled mentally ill, retarded, socially handicapped, emotionally handicapped, learning disabled, physically disabled, delinquent, discipline problems, and so on. It is known that blacks are often placed in these categories in disproportionate numbers. The concern, however, is not only for those whose behaviors are being altered

without their knowledge but also for those who are aware of the intent but lack the sophistication to conceive of the implications of such changes for themselves, their families, and black communities.

A low-income housing project in Kansas City provides an excellent example of a situation in which behavior modification techniques are being used with black subjects with their knowledge and consent (Goodall 1972). It seems that this community was used as a proving ground for behavior modification with

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**"Blacks who failed to conform to . . . expected roles were seen as crazy, smart, or 'uppity niggers.'"**

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humans. Apparently it was anticipated that if the techniques worked in this community, the skeptics would have to consider behavior modification seriously. In describing this situation, Goodall stated: "For the researchers, Juniper Gardens has provided a natural laboratory in which to gather data, develop new technologies, and bolster their group's credentials as a guiding force in human-behavior control" (p. 133). Goodall also spoke of the federal monies this group received: "... moved en masse to the main campus at Lawrence, Kansas, and tapped a generous supply of funds flowing from the Federal Government through the University's Bureau of Child Research. (Risley alone has received nearly a million dollars in grants.)" (p. 132).

It seems safe to say that blacks have been both willing and unwilling subjects for behavior modification. They have also been the reason that behavior modifiers have received large financial grants in this era of fighting for social justice. At the same time, it seems odd that no one from the black or the white

community has risen to demand black participation in the decisions regarding whose social values will be considered when behaviors are selected for change.

## **SOCIAL VALUE JUDGMENTS**

Our concern with behavior modification practices is twofold. First, someone must determine who is to be treated; and second, someone must determine which behavior is to be changed. It is not only the unwanted behavior to be eliminated that is identified, but frequently a new behavior to replace it is identified as well. The case of black males will help illustrate this point.

Black males in the past have had to assume certain roles for survival. The commonly held perceptions that black males are lazy, docile, dumb, fun-loving, and childlike reflect these roles. Blacks who failed to conform to these expected roles were seen as crazy, smart, or "uppity niggers." There is evidence to suggest that some whites, professionals included, still hold these views concerning blacks—male and female, adults and children.

Evidence of this phenomenon was offered by Gottlieb (1964), who provided 89 teachers—53 white and 36 Negro—with a list of 33 adjectives. He asked the teachers to use these adjectives to describe their pupils, most of whom were Negroes of low socioeconomic level. He then looked at the five adjectives used most by the teachers. In rank order from most checked to least checked, the white teachers said their pupils were talkative, lazy, fun-loving, high-strung, and rebellious. Black teachers, on the other hand, said their pupils were fun-loving, happy, cooperative, energetic, and ambitious. While this list of adjectives does not describe specific behavior, it does seem clear that if behaviors were selected to be changed, the white and black teachers would seek to change different behaviors. If blacks are not involved in

making decisions as to which behaviors should be modified, black people cannot safeguard themselves against exploitation by the majority.

The second concern in the area of value judgments is for an individual's right to self-determination regarding which behaviors are to be changed. If behavior management is as effective as many suggest, then where does individual determination on the part of those being "changed" come into focus? If an individual is receiving great personal payoff for his or her behavior as it is, the individual may not view changes in his or her behavior as meaningful. Not only might one view his or her present behavior with satisfaction, but changes made by people who lack insight into personal preferences may instigate a series of alterations of behavior that are out of phase with an individual's preferred culture. Black people must be involved in and concerned with behavior modification if their personal integrity is to be preserved.

## **BLACK INPUT REQUIRED**

Behavior modification will continue to be used with blacks in the future, and perhaps the greatest frequency of use will be in education. With continued integration of schools, there will be a predictable misunderstanding of black youths' behavior patterns by a great many white professionals. We are aware, for example, that in many newly integrated schools black counselors and teachers are not hired in proportion to the number of black students enrolled. As a consequence, the inability—and in some cases the lack of desire—to deal effectively with the behavior patterns of black youth could encourage more frequent use of behavior modification techniques to change these behavior patterns. In order to provide some protection for black students, black professionals must be involved in this process.



When this fact is accepted, the recognition that there are an insufficient number of black professionals involved in behavior modification will become a serious concern for black communities.

Few blacks have critically studied or examined the application of behavior principles. Even fewer blacks have been involved in behavior modification programs in which blacks were used as subjects. Of the 42 leading behavioral psychologists whose pictures appeared in *Psychology Today* (Goodall 1972), none was black. It seems safe to assume that if black professionals had been involved in behavior modification they would have been seen or heard by now. Since they have not, it seems reasonable to assume that there are few blacks identified at the upper professional or any other level of the behavior modification movement.

At colleges other than those that are predominantly black, the proportion of black faculty has not increased significantly. Recently the faculty and staff newsletter of the American Council on Education (Bayer 1973) reported on the status of minority group and women faculty, stating that:

The proportion of faculty who were minority-group members or women increased only slightly over the four-year period. In 1968-69, 2.2 percent of the faculty were black, and 19.1 percent were women. In 1972-73, the proportion of blacks had increased to 2.9 percent, and that of women, to 20.0 percent. Thus, affirmative action programs designed to increase the proportions of minorities and women on college and university faculties seem to be moving at a slow pace. (p. 2)

The reasons that so few black professionals are involved in behavior modification or in education generally, as implied in this report, are many and complex. The greatest of these seems to have been behavior modification's gaining acceptance as a science. One means of gaining acceptance required proponents of the science to establish quality control over the practitioners and researchers who wore the label "behavior modifier." Naturally, as customary in our society,

the vanguard of the discipline was composed of those Caucasians who held PhD's and who were able to communicate effectively about the practices and

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**"There seems little doubt that behavior modification will continue to be used with blacks as subjects—with or without the input of black professionals."**

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techniques of the discipline. The need to develop and maintain high level performance among the practitioners apparently was of greater concern than the need to have black professionals in the field during these early stages of professional development and recognition.

Next, few blacks hold PhD's with an emphasis in the field of the helping professions generally or in behavior modification specifically. The likelihood of a sudden rise in the number of blacks receiving PhD's in the behavioral sciences remains low, even though college and university graduate policies for minorities have been seriously questioned. As a consequence of questionable admission standards and other social handicaps, it seems that black students who do get admitted tend to pursue the more established and traditional disciplines. These reasons are not presented here as excuses but as a place to begin in seeking ways to improve existing conditions.

## **ALTERNATIVES TO THE SITUATION**

Bardo, Bryson, Scott, and Black (1973) have offered several alternatives for increasing the number of minority students in behavior modification programs. One means would be to suggest that each of the behavioral psychologists whose pictures appeared in the Goodall article locate and professionally train a willing and qualified black student. This

method would provide 42 black professionals in behavior modification at an early date and would be a good beginning.

Another alternative would be to have black people declare a moratorium on the use of behavior modification techniques with blacks where there was no professional black input. The Center for Minority Group Mental Health Programs (a unit of the National Institute of Mental Health) would be asked to monitor all requests for monies dealing with behavior modification studies where blacks were involved as subjects and stop the flow of monies until black professionals were involved. This would force the recruitment and education of black professionals.

However, what seems to be the most appropriate way of increasing the number of black professionals in behavior modification is to train them in predominantly black colleges and universities. In a survey of colleges and universities offering behavior modification courses (Benassi & Lanson 1972), the only recognizable predominantly black college involved was Bethune-Cookman. While this approach seemed most promising, little seems in progress at this time. The effect of having few black professionals in the field compounds the problem, since it makes recruitment of new students and faculty more difficult. We see this situation as critical and potentially dangerous for blacks.

Considering all the problems, the most expedient means of getting black professionals to become proficient in behavior modification and to enter into the field would be to train them at established colleges and universities that offer graduate programs in behavior modification. Strong support through fellowships, scholarships, and grants would help push such a program into the reach of blacks.

When these four possibilities are considered, the outlook for the immediate

increase of black professionals and their subsequent input into activities where blacks are used as subjects is bleak. Perhaps a combination of grants and professionally competent visiting professors working through black colleges has much to offer. Let us hope that the recommendations of black people are sought out in the area of psychology before the minorities reject totally the concept of behavior modification.

## CONCLUSIONS

There seems little doubt that behavior modification will continue to be used with blacks as subjects—with or without the input of black professionals. Burger (1972), an anthropologist, has pointed out that "just as the physician is called for the sick rather than the well patient, Skinnerism is educationally invoked for the ethnic minority, not for the white bourgeois" (p. 345).

He further stated:

Despite such ethnic significance, the crossculturally active behaviorist usually comes from the alien, dominant ethnicity. (Indeed, it is significant that so small a percentage of Skinnerians are of non-Anglo background.) Yet his scheme permits, in fact requires, him to set goals for what is usually an ethnic minority. In virtually every Skinnerian project of which I have been aware, the goal has been that of the ethnic majority, the Anglos, rather than the target minority. (p. 351)

Although some of these conclusions are open to question, it is obvious that there is sufficient evidence to cause genuine concern among members of black communities. Decisions are made concerning formulation of problems, selection of appropriate strategies, behaviors to be modified and achieved, constant evaluation of the progress of the treatment, and the interpretation of resulting data without the participation of those who are the subjects.

Of all the books and articles written concerning behavior modification, few if any have dealt exclusively with blacks. One reason for this is that behavior



modifiers assume that the principles of behavior modification apply without regard for an individual's race or color. However, the reason most often given for the lack of such books or articles is that there are no data available. The notion of insufficient data as a reason for the absence of such works on blacks seems to lack validity. On the contrary, blacks as subjects have been one of the most thoroughly researched groups. The example of Juniper Gardens as a human laboratory for research purposes was a project in a totally black community.

From all indications, it is time for people involved in the helping professions to take a stand in support of their verbal commitments to equality for students of all races. Today scholarships for black students in behavior modification are a genuine demand. Black people must be guaranteed their rights to protect their desire to make decisions for themselves and to protect their communities from the imposition of social values contrary to their personal and community convictions. Action on today's problems will

undoubtedly help shape the behavior of blacks in American society tomorrow. ■

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## Stat Static

sample population  
probable expectation

Y from X  
what is next?

interval estimation  
variable and relation

scores summed  
mind numbed

distribution bivariate  
zero errors estimate

chi squares  
who cares?

permutation combination  
coefficient correlation

now the test  
for all the rest

real question  
application

isn't this terrific?  
student scientific!

**HYRUM H. HUSKEY, JR.**  
Doctoral student, Southern Illinois University at Carbondale



# a counselor and change: reminiscences and resolutions

ZANDER PONZO

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*Counselors are becoming more aware of the importance of working with large systems to bring about change that will influence individuals. Working as a school counselor, the author attempted to bring about change. His methods resulted in some dramatic occurrences and encouraged him to spend considerable time reflecting on his behavior and developing guidelines for wiser future action. In this article he relates some of his early experiences as a young school counselor and suggests guidelines for bringing about change.*

It was the 1967-68 school year, and I was, for the first time, working as a school counselor. It was a traumatic year, a year in which I was born into adulthood. On the following pages I share aspects of my critical year and my present thoughts on how to bring about change.

## THE YEAR

It was just before Easter, and since the high school was basically Christian, I can understand how many students might have thought I was being crucified. In fact, I was simply about to be fired from my job, a fate not entirely un contemplated but nevertheless disturbing both to me and to a significant number of the student body. Students and walls wore "PONZO" signs, many students stayed out of class for three days to protest, and Black Power people outside the school became involved.

Events leading to this climax had begun in Madison, Wisconsin. I was twenty-six, could pass for an elderly high

school senior, and had just received my PhD in counseling and behavioral studies. Jobs and money were plentiful; I had to do little more than sit by my phone to receive job offers from near and far. After an eternity of vacillation, I decided on Lincoln High School, an ethnically diverse school of blacks, whites, and those ever-present "others."

I began my school counseling mission well indoctrinated with several "truths." The year started, and I embarked on my crusade to carry out these holy commandments. What I did not know was that I was a stranger in a strange land. I was strange, all right. I was young, idealistic, unaware, arrogant, a New York Italian Jew with a Bronx accent, overconfident, overdressed, overdegreed, and undereducated.

Beginner's luck was with me for a short while. During the first days I discovered that teachers, like most people, are lonely for someone who will listen. I listened and listened well, and soon I had a number of teachers advertising my real

and fantasized virtues. Looking back, it is nice to know that I did something acceptable, even if it was accidental. Soon, however, I forgot about the faculty and began with fervor my sacred task of counseling students.

### Early Irritants

In retrospect, I believe that, given the aura of my PhD, things would have been okay if all I had done was counsel. I would have been happy living by the "shoulds" of my education, and the faculty would have come to view me as no worse than any other innocuous psychological frill. But long before the concept came into vogue, I became a "Change Agent." I knew little about change, but I was going to bring it about, simply because certain behaviors felt right and I wanted to act on my feelings. The following are some initial moves that disturbed people, moves that undermined my later attempts to effect change.

1. Believing that counselors should meet the students, I went to school dances. My dancing with female students irked some of the faculty and administration. The fact that some of them were black did more than just irk them.

2. A few weeks into the school year I introduced the then revolutionary counseling concept of keeping an appointment book. Although other counselors soon joined me in this practice, my wisdom and logic were nevertheless questioned by the administration.

3. In one of my counseling sessions, a young woman burst into hysterical sobbing. Attempting to get her back in touch with reality, I took her in my arms. She quickly calmed down, but unfortunately her screams had bounced down the hallway, and I had been caught by my principal in the unprofessional pose of holding a crying girl in my arms.

4. Finally, following my feelings led me to blatantly display my boredom at a principal's meeting. From boredom I

progressed to daydreaming, then sleeping, and then being gently awakened by the soft voice of the principal as he called my name and told me the meeting was over.

None of these little incidents actually put my job in jeopardy; it was my reaction to an administration-designed plan to bring students and counselors closer that irretrievably widened the gap between me and the faculty and administration.

### How the Gap Widened

As planned, students and counselors from each of the four city high schools were to go off to an island together for a weekend. The students were school leaders. "Formal" leaders were student government types and elected class officers. "Informal" leaders were influential blacks and "others." Given the racial consciousness of the country in the late sixties and the encouragement from an influential black student and myself, it is easy to understand how the weekend turned into a racial awareness encounter.

In the students' opinion and mine, the weekend was productive. Blacks and whites became more aware of barriers that stood between them. Those barriers began to lower under the power of mutual openness and the sharing of food and time. To cultivate what had begun, Lincoln students and I planned for the future and held meetings when we returned. Although frustrated from the start by administrative disapproval, we reached some students through informal talks and lectures; but our activities diminished as we became increasingly discouraged. Several times I was asked to speak with school administrators about the wisdom and necessity of the group, its plans, and my own role in its activities. The tenor of the talks changed from concerned interest to subtle hints that my job was on the line. My standing improved as the group's activities de-



creased, but this state was not to last for long.

With the approach of Negro History Week, members of the original group decided to meet again and develop a program for Lincoln. The principal's approval was needed for the plan, and although he did not flatly refuse us, he did inform us that he was not in favor of our activities. Our program went on, but it gained for me even more mileage

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**"Change is most likely to occur when the change agent is not perceived as a threat and is allowed to merge with the established system."**

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down the unemployment path. I soon lost the support of the man who had hired me and learned that my chances of being rehired were leveling off at zero.

Word of my situation reached the student body from a few student friends. I had told them of my plight, as I would any friend, but realized that it would reach other students. This behavior and others were labeled "unprofessional," a derogatory epithet often used to control the behavior of people who see the world differently from those who are applying the label. I believed that the students had a right to know about my situation. If it mattered little to them, they would ignore it. If it did matter, then concerned students would have an opportunity to speak out against my dismissal.

Many students did care. For three days my future became the focus of most of the school. Students stayed out of class. Black Power people outside the school involved themselves. It became crucial for the school administration to dampen a potentially explosive situation. The school board called meetings, and administrators met with Lincoln students. The meetings helped defuse the situation and also resulted in some new policies and plans. The school board de-

veloped guidelines to improve the education of blacks. In Lincoln, procedures were established to improve communication among faculty, administration, and student body; to teach Negro History; and to improve black-white relations. I was given a contract for the next year.

My next year, however, was spent at Hofstra University in New York. I left Lincoln because I felt that another year there would be anticlimactic, but the memories remain and I have spent considerable time thinking about my eventful year. I would like to share some of what I have learned from those bitter-sweet reflections and describe how I apply these learnings to becoming more effective in my life and work.

## **ANALYZING THE EXPERIENCE**

### **A Definition to Start**

Graduate training directed me to view counseling as "dealing one-to-one with individuals." With this tunnel vision type of definition, I focused my energy on understanding individuals but paid scant attention to larger groups that affect individuals. Today I define counseling in a broader way. I define it as *using one's personal skills to marshal and manipulate whatever human and nonhuman resources are required to facilitate the satisfying and joyous development of an individual client or a client set, e.g., a counseling group, work team, classroom, or family.*

This definition directs my attention to multiparty systems as well as individuals and directs me to consider principles and strategies of change that are common to both. I have, however, found it extremely useful to use one-to-one counseling techniques as my model for working with larger systems.

### **Merging Systems (Getting In)**

For a host of reasons, systems—human, animal, and social—tend to resist change. The strength of this resistance is dependent on the system's awareness of its need to change, its confidence in its

ability to change, and its perception of the entity that proposes to bring the change about. It is prudent as well as necessary for a change agent to consider these factors as part of the change process. In Lincoln I attempted to bring about change without considering those factors. I barged in as if I were asked, wanted, and trusted. I failed to recognize that my "client" was very security-conscious and had its borders well guarded. I failed to recognize that I was an outsider looking in. I failed to recognize that much of my behavior created additional barriers to change rather than removing existing ones.

I believe that effective, lasting change is most likely to occur when the change agent is not perceived as a threat and is allowed to merge with the established system. Change agents must recognize that they are asking the system to be open to new ideas; they are demanding flexibility. Developing a new behavior

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**"Self-awareness is not a one-time learning task. It is an ongoing process that keeps us in touch with the changes in ourselves and the world about us."**

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pattern is not easy. If change agents hope to persuade others to undertake a difficult and often painful process, they themselves must demonstrate openness, modeling their own willingness to change and compromise. To be open and to persuade other systems to be open to change and new ideas requires that change agents wisely use basic helping skills and work continually to understand themselves and improve their techniques.

#### **Understanding Oneself**

The counselor's most powerful tool is his or her own personality. The success or

failure of a plan often depends on the counselor's skill in using this tool. I entered Lincoln with a dangerous ignorance of the possible effects my aggressive, confident, youthful enthusiasm would have on the students. I underestimated my impact and potency and came on too strong to be considered "safe" by a wary faculty and administration. To avoid administering too strong a dosage of me, I should have had greater self-awareness, a commodity my almighty PhD graduate work had not provided.

Self-awareness is not a one-time learning task. It is an ongoing process that keeps us in touch with the changes in ourselves and the world about us. For myself and my students, I stress involvement in experiences that improve self-understanding. Growth groups, individual counseling, and open relations with friends, lovers, spouses, and colleagues are excellent methods for learning about oneself. Counselors who do not spend considerable and continuous effort in working to understand and improve themselves are guilty of malpractice, because they are administering treatments without being as aware as possible of their effects and are not striving to offer the public a more effective treatment procedure.

#### **Understanding Others**

Effective treatment also involves understanding the client. In part, this is accomplished by reading widely and being exposed to a wide array of individual and multi-individual systems. But to some extent each situation is unique, and even the experienced practitioner must spend time learning about the condition and needs of the new client system. Concurrently, he or she will be building a level of trust that increases the chances that the client system will more fully expose itself for study and help and will open itself to listen to and adopt new ideas.

In basic counseling terms, we are talking about "building the relationship." I



was well trained to do this in terms of one-to-one counseling but blind to the realization that the same principles apply when one is trying to enter and change larger systems. I find this same lack of sophistication among many other well-trained individual counselors and therapists.

Also, I have often observed that people who are highly skilled at building good relations in individual or group counseling forget their relationship skills when working with peers or in a consulting position. I have been guilty of this, but I now try to check this by asking myself what I could be doing to make the individual or system I am interacting with feel better about itself. This question is asked in social and work situations. It is the foundation of my bedside manner. It has become my key for changing systems.

In Lincoln my main success with the faculty came in the beginning of the year, when I listened to teachers. My interest made them feel important. I was an empathic listener. I was successful with students because I made them feel important by demonstrating interest in and respect for them. With administrators, however, and progressively with teachers, I was not a success. I did not ask for help and suggestions. I did not help them to feel very important. I did not employ some basic counseling principles.

In the early stages of counseling, the relationship-building stage, the core conditions of warmth, acceptance, congruence, concreteness, and empathic understanding are stressed. They are effective in building the foundation for a good helping relationship because they translate into making a person feel important.

These one-to-one principles also work when dealing with larger systems. Systems are usually unafraid of forces that help them feel good. A secure and unfrightened system will be more open to change and new ideas. It will be more

open to allowing foreign systems in for closer reciprocal inspection. "Foreign and threatening" become "familiar and safe" when the "foreign" system is helping the other system feel important.

### **Let the System Teach You**

In trying to bring about change in Lincoln, I unwittingly established myself as the "expert," and others therefore fantasized that I believed myself superior to them. Their reaction was to put me down by finding real and imagined faults with me and my ideas. I could have avoided these problems by indicating that I needed their ideas, opinions, and support.

To effectively bring about lasting change, it is necessary to learn a great deal about how the established system operates. One can learn this by observing and by drawing on one's knowledge of the behavioral sciences. Our knowledge would be incomplete, however, if we did not get members of the system to teach us about their world. We involve them in the diagnostic process by becoming their students. In teaching us, they too become more aware of their system's flaws and more amenable to change. With increased realization of their own involvement, the members of the system spend an increasing amount of energy bringing about change rather than resisting it. The change agent then becomes a consultant who facilitates change rather than a foreign intruder who demands it. In Lincoln I did little to involve crucial staff people in developing and implementing change strategies. As a result, the system worked hard to negate me. Now, whenever I think about change, I consider ways to get others involved in the process.

### **BEYOND INVOLVEMENT: REALISTIC GOALS**

The students I worked with to bring about change in Lincoln's racial climate

were involved and motivated. They were a client group that knew what it wanted and asked me to help out. Unfortunately, I failed to help the students plan a course of action that would have given them a sense of success rather than one of frustration and failure.

Often people enter into ventures with great enthusiasm but with little appreciation for the determination and planning needed to surmount the obstacles between an ideal and its realization. Love fades and lovers separate when they find that ardent passion can be blunted by the mundane realities of the day-by-day relationship. Counselees often encourage themselves and their counselors with their zealous talk of the changes they are going to make. Their sincerity is real, but their mantle of confidence fades with each step away from their supportive counselor. Both counselor and counselee tend to become discouraged when they realize that talk and enthusiasm do not necessarily equal accomplishment. Groups intent on social change often accomplish little because, in their sincere and naive enthusiasm, they too lose themselves in noble platitudes and commit themselves to goals and energy expenditures that are far beyond their rational abilities and resources. Social change groups, like lovers and counselees, become discouraged when they realize that the reality of their potential accomplishments is far less than their idealistic dreams.

Discouragement, in itself difficult to rebound from, is made more so when in close proximity to enthusiasm. When noble dreams come up against bitter realities, individuals and groups tend to consider themselves failures. Consequently, they either back away in search of new romantic dreams or wallow deeply in despair and cynicism. Lovers leave each other, counselees stop trying, and social action groups give up. To combat this, the change agent must realize that a prime objective is to design

program goals that will increase the probability of success and decrease the probability of failure and abandonment.

The Lincoln group was sincere and committed, but none of us was wise enough to realize that we were pledging ourselves to goals that would take longer to reach and require more energy than we anticipated. We programmed ourselves for frustration and failure because we planned romantically rather than rationally. With greater wisdom, I would have helped the group to plan short- and long-range behavioral objectives, to plan the steps needed to reach subgoals and major goals, to take joy in the process of reaching goals and subgoals, to make wise estimates of the amount of time and energy they were willing to commit, and to order their goals. Hopefully, I could have taken them out of the land of romance and transported all of us into the land of rational reality. Romantic enthusiasm is certainly a nice ingredient—and probably the spark that gets change going—but the warmth and light cast by a spark are of short duration. Unless nurtured with the costly fuels of wisdom and hard work, little lasting energy will be generated.

My group and I flashed for a while in Lincoln. We were a romantic crew, filled with the love of an ideal and spurred on by each other and a national mood. Our enthusiastic spark turned many people on. Our collective enthusiasm generated enough energy to scorch others so that they had to make some moves to reduce the heat. We were, however, slowly but surely squelched by a hard, cold reality that cared little for romantic dreams and would lastingly bend only to dedicated, hard-working, and rational planning and commitment. The group died. I left because my naive romanticism had scorched too many, and I am left knowing that, though it might have been less exciting, with greater wisdom more change could have come about in Lincoln. ■



# the poem as catalyst in group counseling

JOHANNA W. LESSNER

*Poetry has always sung the human themes of joy and suffering, discovery and loss. In this article the author describes the use of poetry in group sessions to help members identify and express feelings and to explore new ways of being. The author hopes, through illustration, to stimulate counselors and therapists in various settings to include poetry as part of communication, healing, and growth.*

Poetry therapy, now an accepted approach to the helping relationship, is represented by more than four hundred diversely oriented therapists, a worldwide Association for Poetry Therapy, and programs in hospitals, educational institutions, drug abuse treatment centers, and prisons. Articles and books, most recently Leedy's *Poetry the Healer* (1973), have reached the general public as well as the mental health professions. While poetry therapy is not a unified or comprehensive theory and method like psychoanalysis or gestalt therapy, poetry can and hopefully will be used by counselors and therapists of any "school" as an effective, even powerful, catalyst for opening feelings and making them accessible for working through.

The intent of this article is to describe a process of experiencing poetry, and therefore ourselves, deeply; to present the sort of poem that has proven itself particularly effective in catalyzing individual and group response; and finally, to illustrate the kaleidoscopic possibilities of client or student response.

The college setting, be it the classroom or the counseling room, notoriously en-

courages ego control and the intellectualizing of experience. In order to enable us to come into closer touch with ourselves and, at the same time, to enter the poem rather than critically discuss it as outsiders or philosophize about its message, we have found it useful and satisfying to begin sessions with sensory awareness exercises. Some of these are suggested by Gunther (1968). For most participants such a period of relaxation and bodily awareness seems to enhance receptiveness to the experience of the poem that follows.

Lawrence Ferlinghetti's "In Golden Gate Park," from *A Coney Island of the Mind*, has been so demonstrably evocative in group counseling sessions that it merits close attention as an example of poetry that contributes to productive process. I have used this poem with heterogeneous groups of students, housewives, policemen, prison guards, and colleagues in teaching and counseling. In each instance this poem has been particularly helpful in reducing resistance and involving most, if not all, participants, so much so that it has provided direction for the entire session.

In Golden Gate Park that day  
a man and his wife were coming along  
through the enormous meadow  
which was the meadow of the world  
He was wearing green suspenders  
and carrying an old beat-up flute  
in one hand  
while his wife had a bunch of grapes  
which she kept handing out  
individually  
to various squirrels  
as if each  
were a little joke  
And then the two of them came on  
thru the enormous meadow  
which was the meadow of the world  
and then  
at a very still spot where the trees dreamed  
and seemed to have been waiting thru all time  
for them  
they sat down together on the grass  
without looking at each other  
and ate oranges  
without looking at each other  
and put the peels  
in a basket which they seemed  
to have brought for that purpose  
without looking at each other  
And then  
he took his shirt and undershirt off  
but kept his hat on  
sideways  
and without saying anything  
fell asleep under it  
And his wife just sat there looking  
at the birds which flew about  
calling to each other  
in the stilly air  
as if they were questioning existence  
or trying to recall something forgotten  
But then finally  
she too lay down flat  
and just lay there looking up  
at nothing  
yet fingering the old flute  
which nobody played  
and finally looking over  
at him  
without any particular expression  
except a certain awful look  
of terrible depression.<sup>1</sup>

## IDENTIFICATION WITH SYMBOLS

After I read the poem aloud to the group, we do not discuss the poem or speak of its intent, content, or aesthetic merit. Rather, we experience it from within, as each person identifies with that element in the poem which seems most concordant with his or her present feelings. Talking about an element, a mood, or a character in the poem would serve only to support an already existing con-

viction and to fortify it with renewed argument. We might then hear: "People are so lonely!" or "That man is simply not sensitive!" or "Men don't understand!" Such comments are not likely to lead to a recognition of one's own feelings or to a fresh inner experience or insight, but they may, on the contrary, rigidify the

<sup>1</sup> Lawrence Ferlinghetti, *A Cony Island of the Mind*. Copyright © 1958 by Lawrence Ferlinghetti. Reprinted by permission of New Directions Publishing Corporation.



old stance. On the other hand, through role play and role reversal, participants may dramatically face themselves and learn to see and feel new ways of being.

Meet Jack, the flute, an attractive and popular thirty-two-year-old colleague who, in the midst of painful divorce proceedings, expressed his passivity by saying:

I am the flute. I don't like just being carried around and held. I want to be played. I wish she would be able to make him want to play me again, so I could sound alive.

At the time, Jack seemed twice removed from his own melody. A very different flute was Marilyn, who chose that image at a group session of six college counselors. In contrast to Jack, she was an active flute who heard so much beautiful music within herself that she was bursting "to let it out" amidst her deadening chores of scheduling, filling out forms, and attending meetings. She yearned to play what she heard as her *real* music in her work and to reach greater integration in her life.

Debbie's identification with the grass reflected the feelings of inadequacy she had expressed to me in a private meeting. A most attractive and talented girl, she was troubled by her depending on her boyfriend for her feelings of self-worth. As grass, she expressed her yearning for growth when she said:

I am the grass in the meadow. I want so much to push out of the soil and grow, but it's pretty hard sometimes. I want to be tall, tall grass and blow in the wind.

It has been amazing to find that so many participants select what are seemingly the least obvious elements of the poem as their image. Steve, perhaps the most intellectualizing and emotionally impenetrable member of an evening group, felt himself as the orange peels that were tossed away when they were no longer useful. Steve is an engineer who, at the time, dreaded weekends, when he had no tasks to perform and felt totally at a loss.

Another unique response came from Linda, a heavy but not unattractive girl. That day she wore a brown blouse, a brown shawl, and brown slacks as she engaged in the following interchange with the counselor:

I'm the paper sack into which they throw the orange peels.

*As paper bag what color are you?*

I'm a brown bag.

*What do you feel as brown bag?*

I don't want to be a brown old bag. I want to be more useful than that. I want to be used for something really important!

So far I have encountered only two bunches of grapes! Vicki is a Chicana with flashing brown eyes and a bubbling, vivacious temperament. Active on campus, she gives of herself and was indeed convincing when she said:

I'm the grapes. She gives me out, one by one, and I feel very sweet and juicy.

Corinne, only seventeen years old, has been self-supporting and living independently for two years. She is talented and innovative in her work with young children and impressively responsible to herself and others. She too identified with the grapes by saying:

I am the grapes, entering the hands of others to be devoured by them. Each section, taken off alone, not to be connected with any other part of the plant. Continuously given out to reaching arms. Always feeling like the last grape is about to be plucked off the vine, with the vine then ready to be handed out. But somehow, more grapes keep growing. As long as I am grapes, I hope never to quit growing. But somewhere along the way I'd like a raisin or two in return.

As she shared these words with the group, her smile seemed fixed, but in her eyes the tears welled. Later she wrote:

I have been frightened from my lack of feeling, even though frightened is a feeling. When I thought about my life I was saddened, but no real feeling showed. But verbalizing my life structure to the group showed that I had that quality of feeling. It also made known to me the fact that people cared. I think these findings were a raisin.

Others, like Corinne, have found that

the poetry experience helps to uncover feelings that had seemed to be lacking.

Just as the flute can play melodies of dejection or melodies of energy and hope, so the tree undergoes metamorphoses. At a group session with black and Chicano members of a center

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**"We do not discuss the poem or speak of its intent, content, or aesthetic merit. Rather, we experience it from within."**

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for minority students, I found it particularly difficult to overcome the students' tendency toward rationalization and political polemic. As we became more relaxed, however, Hernandez said softly:

I am the tree. I have a beautiful tough bark and I feel that I stand strong and tall. I have many branches and they have been broken many times, but they keep on growing back and they get more and more leaves. I like being a strong brown tree and feeling myself moving in the wind.

### CLARA'S GROWTH

Clara's tree, on the other hand, became symbolic of her alienation and her serious difficulty in relating with others, problems we tried to work through during subsequent sessions. She experienced many profound changes, but it was her identification with the tree that first permitted her to become accessible. Clara's lovely red hair framed a face so nondescript that, significantly, no one in the small group knew her name. She had never participated, so she seemed a shadow among us. During the sensory awareness exercises, she was painfully rigid, obviously wanting as much as possible to remain an observer. Her response to the poem was moving:

I am the tree.

*What are you feeling, as tree?*

As tree, I don't feel at all. I don't feel anything. I look out at you people who pass by and look at me, and I wish I could feel as you do.

The group reacted warmly to her words; in turn, her face softened and became flushed and animated. She began to write a great deal. Among her first attempts at poetry, she brought the following:

I stand before three doors  
Over the first hangs a cornucopia  
Over the second hangs a scepter  
Over the third hangs a mirror.

I question opening the first door  
I loathe opening the second  
I fear opening the third.  
But I am fortunate to be able to choose.

Although many poetry therapists emphasize the writing of poetry in their groups, this has not been my practice. Any poetic expression is entirely self-initiated. Some members do keep journals, however. The importance of Clara's experience is reflected in this journal entry:

When asked, I said the first thing that came to me. And when I was speaking and afterwards when I thought about what I said, it came to me that I AM like a tree, but also that I AM part of the meadow of the world, and that, as such, I don't have to be a tree all my life.

Gradually, through ongoing work, Clara recognized that her fear of being "phony" and being rejected by others reflected her own treelike and rejecting behavior as well as her fear of genuine contact with another.

### ROLE PLAY AND REVERSAL

The central tension of Ferlinghetti's poem is created by the heavy distance between the man and the woman, between the man who, without saying anything, fell asleep under his hat, and the woman "with a certain awful look of terrible depression." Without fail, in every group the pain of these lines powerfully evokes similar feelings in one of the members, usually a woman.

For example, a meticulously groomed, usually very controlled and eager-to-be-perfect woman of thirty, Alice became emotionally involved with "the



woman" and terribly angry at "the man." She burst out: "That's terrible! All men are like that! They just don't appreciate what we do!" With Alice, as I have done at similar times, I assumed the role of the man. Vehemently I let her know that, as man, I was fed up by her unrealistic expectations of me, by her silly romantic notion that I should *have* to enjoy the blue sky, the childish grape-feeding, and the damned sunshine. After all, I had worked fifty hours that week, I had left in the middle of watching the football game on TV (and she knew how important that was!), I had come along to please her, I had given all I could—now what else did she want from me? This role play of the husband has led to vexation, confusion, frustration, and later to some reassessment of expectations. Alice was very upset: "I never knew I had this inside me. I *never* cry, and I didn't know I had all this inside me until just now."

#### **BASES FOR SELECTION OF POETRY**

Through Ferlinghetti's "In Golden Gate Park," we come upon a panorama of human feelings and responses. Why is this poem so catalytic and therefore so valuable for group process? Obviously the theme touches on fundamental needs and desires of people: love, contact, sharing. Yet from the variety of identifications (and I have selected but a few), we see that while this single theme would strike a responsive chord in many men and women, it would leave unnoticed all of those who at the time feel like birds, trees, flutes, puffy clouds, paper bags, or discarded orange peels.

The strength of the poem in group work is that it offers so many alternatives; in addition to the central personalities, it includes many concrete images. Furthermore, this poem defies any hidden agenda that the group leader, counselor, or therapist may have in mind. Having used the poem in many different groups, I have found that the process it stimulates is entirely unpre-

dictable and may focus on one member or on interaction among several. The poem also challenges any thought that "a rose is a rose is a rose," much less "a tree is a tree is a tree," and even much less "a lovely tree." In the sense that Kris (1964) has defined it, this poem has high ambiguity, ambiguity referring not necessarily to uncertainty of meaning but to the poem's multiplicity of meaning.

In my search for poetry suitable for group work, I have had to set aside many fine poems because they were written within limiting literary or cultural contexts. Since the poem is directed to heterogeneous groups, and since it is heard—not seen—the language must be easily and universally understandable. Archaic or florid expressions and overly complex syntax eliminate many otherwise meaningful and evocative poems. Alexander Pope may have been perfectly correct when he wrote, "Whatever the passion—knowledge, fame or pelf,/Not one will change his neighbor with himself," but the use of dictionaries is not apt to enhance group feeling. Inspirational and educational as some of the great poets may be, I would hope that clients change and grow through the experience of their own increased awareness of self and others.

Experience has also shown me that highly structured or rhymed verse is not

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**"Clara's tree . . . became symbolic of her alienation and her serious difficulty in relating with others."**

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as effective as the "looser" modern forms. This would suggest that the very openness of the poem's form contributes to greater freedom of response. In this respect, a poem such as Langston Hughes' "Dream Deferred" has special value.

What happens to a dream deferred?  
Does it dry up  
like a raisin in the sun?  
Or fester like a sore—  
And then run?  
Does it stink like rotten meat?  
Or crust and sugar over—  
like a syrupy sweet?  
Maybe it just sags  
like a heavy load.  
Or does it explode?<sup>2</sup>

The dreams deferred are many, and what happens to them is often very sad.

The selection of poetry for our purpose becomes easier if it is understood that the object is to offer people hooks for their feelings rather than push them into predetermined slots or inspire them with poetic wisdom and style.

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<sup>2</sup>Copyright 1951 by Langston Hughes. Reprinted from *The Panther and the Lash*, by Langston Hughes, by permission of Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

This description of my use of poetry in group counseling should not serve as a model or a recipe for others to follow. It is simply an approach that has been exciting and effective in helping people identify feelings and recognize that many of our private meanings are shared not only in the group but universally through poets. If other counselors are stimulated to explore their own creative ways to use poetry and to seek the collaboration of colleagues in the humanities or of poetic students, then the purpose of this presentation will be fulfilled. ■

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## Patchwork

She works in a world I have never known  
Full of rainbow pills and lilac candles  
Woven together  
    with simple time stitches—  
A pattern of color in a grey fabric factory  
Where she spends her days  
    spinning threads  
        that go to Chicago by night;  
Once with a little girl smile  
    and a giggle  
She flew to Atlanta in her mind,  
Opening the door to instant adventures  
    far from her present fatigue,  
That was a journey we shared  
    arranging her thoughts in a patchwork pattern  
    until the design and desires came together;  
Silence now covers the air like a blanket  
    all trips having come to an end,  
Tomorrow first shift begins at seven  
With fast sewing needles  
    and loud hungry noise,  
In beehive crowds her hands with speed  
    will change bobbins and untangle yarn  
While with her bright imagination  
    she shall knit herself a land  
Where in restful villas  
    she will find a peaceful solitude.

SAMUEL T. GLADDING  
Rockingham County Mental Health Center, Wentworth, North Carolina

# Guidance U.S.A.:

## Views from Abroad

edited by Leo Goldman

Each year a number of colleagues from other countries visit the United States to study, to teach, to do research, and to see how their opposite numbers here in counseling, guidance, and student personnel work do their thing. Often the visitors share their experiences and thoughts with a few colleagues, but rarely on a large scale and almost never in print.

It occurred to me that it would be valuable for us here to see ourselves as these others see us. Therefore, about a year ago I sent a letter to the *APGA Guidepost* and placed a small announcement in *P&G*, asking people to send me the names of recent foreign visitors. From various sources, we received the names of over thirty people and sent them all invitations to write some reactions to what they saw in the U.S. At deadline time for this September issue, eleven papers had been received. What follows are selected excerpts from those eleven papers, from Aventura to Ziv. In some instances the papers submitted were quite long, and space limitations compelled me to use a very sharp editorial pencil.

What I asked the visitors to emphasize, and what I have emphasized in selecting the excerpts for use here, are the points of difference and similarity between what they see in their own countries and what they saw here. I asked them especially to try to relate those differences and similarities to the values and customs and backgrounds of the two countries. This, it seems to me, is one of the most valuable outcomes of international study and visitation—greater perspective and insights, on both sides, as to who we are and why we do as we do. That is the main purpose for the undertaking of this project, and I am deeply grateful to the participants for their willingness to share their candid reactions for publication. We accept their contributions in the spirit of international collegiality and hope that these ideas and opinions will stimulate further communication in both directions.



## from England...

CATHERINE AVENT

*Careers Guidance Inspector, Inner London Educational Authority, London, England*

I first visited the U.S.A. to study counseling and guidance from September 1960 to February 1961 under the Foreign Leaders and Specialists Award Scheme of the Department of State. I traveled from coast to coast visiting schools, colleges, and universities, having consultations with over two hundred American colleagues and, in addition, visiting some fifty head offices of professional associations and voluntary agencies. I became a life member of the American Personnel and Guidance Association and have returned for eight APGA conventions.

I was surprised to find how seldom careers information and occupational courses are featured in high schools, because I had not previously realized the extent to which American students aspire to a college education and can therefore postpone career decisions; the majority in the United Kingdom make such decisions at the age of sixteen. I was also surprised to find how broadly based is the education of American students. It covers humanities, sciences, and social studies, not only through the eleventh and twelfth grade (in England most students spend three-quarters of their time on three related subjects) but also in the first two and even more years of college

education. I was surprised to find in some areas, such as California and New York, considerable cooperation with the state employment services, because I had hitherto imagined that there was no American equivalent to the United Kingdom's Careers Service (lately Youth Employment Service), which services secondary schools for vocational guidance and job placement of noncollege-bound students.

The main difference I found was the lack of urgency in career decision making in the U.S.A., due to the fact that American youth are not confronted with apprenticeship regulations that require young people to start work below the age of eighteen. Also, there is not the problem in the U.S.A. of obtaining a university place; in the U.K. university entry in most departments is still highly competitive because there is not the range of institutions in tertiary education as there is in the U.S.A., where community and state colleges can provide for those who do not want or are not able to go to university. At the higher education stage the British student has already decided what to major in before applying as a freshman to university or college, and this clearly forces an earlier decision than

does the tradition of liberal arts education followed in the U.S.A. Lastly, the enormous service provided by psychologists and their ancillary staffs means that problems are more easily identified, and hopefully solved, in the U.S.A. than in the U.K., where the output of psychologists from the universities is relatively small and the educational psychologists concentrate upon learning difficulties and assessment for special education.

It is not easy to offer generalizations about the respective values and customs of the U.S.A. and the U.K., but obviously the development of comprehensive secondary education at an early stage in the United States has led to much of the development of guidance and counseling, since students needed help in choosing from a wide range of curriculum offerings. By contrast, in England, until some fifteen years ago, only the top quarter of the population in academic ability had much choice of subject, since the majority left school at the minimum age and entered employment.

There could be many reasons for the greater quantity of psychological provision in the United States. Some might say that this is due to the mobility of the population, others that it is due to a greater concern with mental health and the fact that a more open society inevitably produces some psychological uncertainties that cause people to seek help in adjusting to society's demands. Enemies of England would say that we still have a relatively class-structured society despite the enormous advances made in educational and occupational opportunity in the last twenty years and that people in England are less inclined to question their place in society. Perhaps more importantly, the American belief in the efficacy of education—not only in leading to greater opportunity but also in enabling what was originally an immigrant population to become adjusted to American society—has produced a situa-

tion in which the majority of American youth remains in school till the age of eighteen or even twenty, whereas in England half the boys and girls still leave school at sixteen. The longer education is extended, the greater the choices available within it and therefore the greater the need for guidance and counseling. The provision of possibilities for retraining for new skills throughout adult life as a result of a more rapidly changing economic society has, of course, also affected the development of counseling services for adults, which are very little provided for in England.

The abiding impression I have is of American schools in which happy pupils are taking a stimulating variety of courses in a much more flexible education system than that in the U.K. Teachers in American schools and colleges seem so much more idealistic than our own concerning the philosophy of education. I well remember an official of the NEA telling me that education was making such progress that soon all Americans would be going to college and truck drivers would be studying not automobile engineering but "logic, epistemology, and ethics, [which] will be the liberating disciplines of the future." In quoting this in England, I am obliged to follow it with an exclamation mark. When I think I may have been dazzled by the size, hospitality, friendliness, and optimism I found in the United States, I remind myself of the leader writer in the *London Times* who once claimed, "There can be few great adventures more worth watching than the course of American education. On it may well depend the kind of civilisation on which our grandchildren survive."

In conclusion, I would say that I regard my own life as divided into a sort of B.C. and A.D., the watershed being what was for me the "great adventure" of getting an overview of American counseling and guidance within the education system.



CHARLES A. CHRISTIE

*Head of Guidance, Glebe Collegiate Institute, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada*

Of the nine months (from September 1971 to June 1972) in which my wife and I traveled by trailer in North America, five were spent in the United States. We visited Indianapolis, Indiana; Louisville, Kentucky; Nashville, Tennessee; Macon, Georgia; Tampa, St. Petersburg, and Orlando, Florida; San Antonio, Texas; Tucson and Mesa, Arizona; San Diego, Palo Alto, and San Rafael, California; and Portland, Oregon. In each city I attempted to meet the director or head of guidance in at least two secondary schools and someone connected with counselor education in a university. I found a good leadership in guidance, effective and well-established organizations of counselors, some innovative programs, and a willingness on the part of counselors to talk about their work and answer questions.

Counselors in the places I visited in the U.S.A. were concerned about pressures that induced them to participate in non-counseling functions. Directors and guidance heads were being affected by decreased budgets. Many were apprehensive about requests for accountability in a service that is difficult to evaluate. It was alleged by several heads and counselors that their students had more serious problems than did Canadian students. In their opinion, family life had deteriorated more south of the 49th parallel.

As far as the people in guidance are concerned, I could see few differences in such areas as hospitality, knowledge of work, and plans for the future. American guidance heads seemed to have done more research and to be involved in more research at the time of my visit. In

several cities of the U.S.A. I found career education to be emphasized more than it is in Canada. There was some evidence of a swing back to the vocational aspect of guidance.

Although almost all the counselors I met were quite willing to answer my questions and volunteer additional information about their work, they were less interested in what we were doing in Canada than were the Canadian counselors I met. I do not wish to attempt to explain their indifference. I did not get the impression that they knew all there was to know about guidance; but possibly they felt that an unknown country such as Canada would have little to contribute.

Most of the guidance heads I met were in the midst of, or were about to begin, big projects that gave promise of significant changes in guidance. They looked great to me. I exhibited genuine interest and made sincere requests to have copies of completed projects sent to me. I also asked for evaluation studies to be forwarded. Although within six months of my visit I forwarded copies of my sabbatical year report (which, by the way, a large number of people had requested), I received feedback from just one person of the possible fourteen. He wrote a letter of thanks. It is now approximately two years since I visited the U.S.A. It would seem reasonable to assume that some of the important projects had been completed.

In addition to fourteen cities in nine states of the U.S.A., I visited eight Canadian cities in five different provinces. I found more evidence of research in

guidance in American cities than in the Canadian ones I visited. Although I may be wrong, I am of the opinion that counselors in training have to do more research in the U.S.A. than in Canada. I believe too that American counselors are given more time and encouragement to participate in research during their working days. It is quite likely that fed-

eral money has brought about this situation.

In my opinion, guidance people in both countries are willing to try out new ideas. Often they are tried first in the U.S.A. and then are brought to Canada before they have been carefully evaluated. I brought some myself—but that is another story.

## from India...

INDU DAVE

*Faculty Member, Vidya-Bhawan Teachers College, Udaipur, Rajasthan, India*

I have visited the United States three times, once from 1954 to 1956, during which time I completed a master's and a doctor's degree; the second time from 1961 to 1962, when I did postdoctoral work; and most recently from May to July 1973, when I attended the APGA Convention in Atlanta. These visits included periods of residence in Ann Arbor (Michigan), Athens (Georgia), and Los Angeles (California) and travel to several other states.

I was not really surprised at anything I found. Most of what I found in the U.S.A. was generally according to my expectations—maybe because I was very well oriented to the situation, even before my first visit, by an exchange teacher in my own institution, by other friends, and through literature.

Questions related to similarities and differences between India and the U.S.A. in terms of problems, people, and programs were put to me very frequently—in formal as well as informal situations—during my stay in the States. My reactions to these questions have always been prompted by one of my basic beliefs regarding this issue: I like to view

the differences among peoples all over the world in the context of their basic commonalities, which I call the "common core of humanity." Superficial differences of language, dress, customs, manners, and so on, tend to break through the sharpness of separating barrier edges and appear to mingle together as soon as the eye learns to look at and love some of the soothing similarities that bind together humanity from every portion of the globe.

It is normal to have problems, but the nature, degree, and extent of the problem differs from individual to individual. These differences depend mainly on the individual's perceptions and personality makeup. Now sociocultural norms, moral-religious values, economic-political status, and familial-relational setups tend to play a major role in developing the perceptions and personalities of individuals—in any part of the world. Perhaps, as compared to India, the American sociocultural norms tend to permit more extroversion and less tolerance toward problems; the moral-religious values in life appear to be more pragmatic and less rigid; the



economic-political status seems to be more sound and less inhibited; the familial-relational setup reflects more unitary and less complex characteristics. My own speculation is that these differences should tend to influence the nature and scope of problems felt by individuals in both the countries as well as their reactions to these problems.

The greatest functional difference between the two countries, however, exists in the present status of the organization

of guidance services in schools. While guidance services form integral parts of regular school programs in the U.S.A., they exist in Indian schools only in the abstract form of an "accepted philosophy of education." Right now the entire technical work field in the area appears to be raw in terms of unclarified concepts, inadequately trained counselors, and haphazardly planned programs. There exists, however, a keen desire for improvement.

## from the Netherlands. . .

NATHAN DEEN

*Faculty Member, Pedagogisch-Didaktisch Instituut, University of Utrecht, Utrecht, the Netherlands*

During the second half of 1972 I had the opportunity to study counselor education programs in the United States. I spent four months at Michigan State University and visited a number of other places also.

What is counseling practice in American schools like? Many counselors seem to be engaged in scheduling activities primarily. Not only are they busy most of their time helping individuals make up or change their schedules, but it seems often to be their responsibility also to prepare their school's master schedule. In their doing so, the distinction between counselor and school administrator tends to disappear, and many counselors will assume tasks that should be assigned to the administrators (e.g., "disciplinary measures"). What often are referred to as being the primary responsibilities of a counselor—to help students solve their personal problems and to assist them in decision-making processes—often become the least time-consuming and least effective parts of their work. Add to this

that in some schools the counselor/student ratio seems to be very unsatisfactory (I noticed ratios up to 1 to 750) and it is easy to conclude that a counselor's role should be well defined and that provisions should be made to make the counselor's effort worthwhile.

Both conclusions make sense for the Dutch situation also. In Holland, however, the fact that nationwide standards for educational finance create uniformity in facilities means that care will have to be taken to insure that these facilities will meet minimum requirements of effectiveness.

Is the image of the counselor generally a negative one? I would deny that. Contrary to some negative statements, which may be true now and again, I found that in most places counselors were valued much and considered to be a real asset to the school. I also found that the less they were buried under paper work and administrative duties, the more they were held in esteem and considered to be effective counselors. Also, the more

schools were open to the needs of students in contemporary society, the more central the role of the counselor tended to become.

The question arises as to how—apart from others' perceptions—counselors view themselves. Being engaged in so many activities themselves, it is understandable that many counselors lose a clear picture of their situation and become confused about what counselors are and should be. Moreover, there is so much difference in the training that acting counselors have undergone, as well as in current training programs, that looking at these does not contribute to clarifying the issue. Counseling itself being a vague notion, covering activities as disparate as scheduling, career guidance, and group therapy, it is no wonder that counselors are confused about their identity.

It impresses a visitor that this theme comes up again and again and that its importance is stressed under the

influence of the "accountability movement." The challenge of being held "accountable" in terms of counseling effects that people can count seems to make for a shift of activities to those areas in which performance can be measured in an easy way. It seemed to me that counselors, after a period of focusing on individual counseling for personal growth, increasingly tend toward giving career guidance and giving counseling for minor emotional disturbances that are easy to identify and to cure.

It is clear that introduction of pupil personnel services in the Netherlands cannot consist of purely implementing a usual American practice into a European school organization. Not only is there no such thing as a uniform counseling practice in America, but also there are valuable traditions and developments in Dutch education that deserve to be integrated with the new trend. In doing so, much can be learned from the American experience.

## from England . .

SHIRLEY EPPS

*Head of Drama, Riverside School, Erith, Kent, England*

In April 1973 I had the good luck to visit the United States with a group of English counselors in training. The journey took us to Albany, New York, where we were guests of the State Bureau of Guidance, and the Capital District Guidance Association hosted us in various ways. We visited high schools in the area and the State University of New York at Albany.

I began the journey as an interested outsider, but I became so involved that I finally became committed to the cause of

counseling. I am not a professional counselor, but because of the way in which drama is taught in England, and because of the nature of the area in which I teach, I cannot help being, in all but name, a counselor. I was fascinated by the similarities between role playing as we use it in educational drama and the way in which it is used in group counseling situations in the U.S.A. British drama workshop techniques are evident in American counselors' self-assessment



sessions. Transactional analysis also has its parallels in some kinds of preparation for acting.

In spite of some ongoing difficulties, counseling is largely taken as a matter of course in America, and in America there is much more inservice training available through the professional associations. In England, careers guidance is undertaken by teachers. Almost all counseling (or, as we call it, "pastoral care") is in the hands of people who do at least some teaching.

However, we do have a growing appreciation of the urgent need for counseling at all levels of education, and many of our universities and colleges have relevant services in operation, often at the instigation of the students' unions and always with the cooperation of the faculty. Certainly the heavy pressures on teachers and lecturers, from all directions, make the need for full-time counselors imperative. No teacher has the time to do justice to this important work.

## from England . .

ROY HARRIS

*Principal Lecturer, Digby Stuart College of Education, London, England*

As tutor-in-charge of a one-year, full-time course to train teachers for the role of counselors in secondary schools, I accompanied a small group of students during the 1973 Easter vacation to explore the field of counseling. We spent one week in Albany, New York, and one in Boston, Massachusetts, where we were the guests of people working in the field of counseling.

What impressed us was the great deal of attention, time, and money that was being given to counseling. In Britain counseling is slow in developing, and most schools have no counselor. It would be no exaggeration to state that it is a luxury to have even a half-time counselor in a school; by contrast, in the high schools we visited it was not unusual to find eight or more full-time counselors operating.

In one high school we had the opportunity to talk with a small group of senior students. It was surprising for us to hear them say that, if they wanted help with a

personal problem, they would seek it from a peer or teacher with whom they could talk. They said that they would go to the counselor for information about courses and scheduling. Having read American literature, we thought students would have had a different orientation toward counselors. We learned later that counselors were very concerned with their role and were engaged in an accountability exercise. During one of my visits to a high school, I saw a counselor conducting a half-hour session with a small group of students who were filling up a form for course options. Questioning the counselor, I discovered that she would be involved in this work all that day and for many more days thereafter. It was, as far as I could judge, a straightforward, routine job that could have been done effectively by a member of the clerical staff, with consultation when necessary. It was, in my opinion, not a job for a professionally trained counselor.

In discussion with some students in the high school, I discovered that they were not able to explain in any great detail what the role of the counselor in their school was, except that of a scheduler. They could not remember the visits that had been made by the counselors to the feed-in schools. This was surprising to me in view of the very generous counselor-student ratio; one would have expected very good information flow.

In discussion with a counselor of students at university level, I discovered that much time was being devoted to the process of counseling but that very little indeed was being done in research to validate what was being done. He was able to refer only to a couple of small pieces of work at undergraduate level. This suggested to me that there must exist some considerable faith in the efficacy of counseling without due consideration given to measureable outcomes. In halls of residence we found great concern by the student counselors about drug taking and pilfering. I did wonder to what extent the preventive approach in counseling earlier on—at the elementary stages—had been effective. Over and over again, in different places, I was reminded not to leave my camera about, not even in the counseling offices, because it would assuredly be stolen. It seemed to me that there was much mistrust about and that people did not feel like members of one body but felt estranged from each other.

Sitting in a case conference at a child guidance clinic, I was somewhat taken aback by the very rapidity at which the business was transacted. The psychiatrist, leader of the conference, gave instant diagnoses on a minimum of data, using Freudian symbolism of a dubious nature in order, it seemed to me, to have everything neatly wrapped up. I came away with a feeling that interpretations had been superficial and too "instant."

I was impressed at the development of encounter group work and people's ob-

vious need for such experience. When doing some personal shopping, I noticed in the card shops many posters and such like things carrying printed messages of peace and love. I wondered whether people's need for close personal relationships in encounter groups and constant reminders of peace and love reflected a dehumanization of the individual in a rather materialistically oriented society. Could it be that the basic need for love and at-one-ness with others was in some way not being satisfied in people's normal daily living?

The foregoing comment may appear to be somewhat condemnatory, but this was not the intention; I have attempted, as fairly as possible, to present my immediate reactions to the things I experienced. What I saw was a sample only, and it would be unwise of me to generalize from the few experiences I had. However, it may be that what I did see is in some respects typical; only the reader with wider experience can make a reasonable judgment. We in Britain are experiencing similar problems, but we have a long way to go in catching up with the U.S.A. in the development of counseling services, particularly in the schools. We shall learn a great deal from American experiences, for which we are grateful. It may be of interest to readers that quite a few heads of secondary schools here are giving much thought to developing effective pastoral care work in their schools rather than appointing full-time counselors. This raises the question of whether there should be much more done in teacher training programs to develop those basic ingredients of counseling shown to be effective in the promotion of good interpersonal relationships, namely, empathy, positive regard, and genuineness.

I have been impressed with the work that Charles A. Curran has been doing in counseling-learning as a valuable contribution to the whole person model for education. In Britain today there is much



more thought being given to the rights of individuals and groups of individuals within the wider context of the overall aims of the elected government, and there is a growing concern about such things as avarice and envy and how to bring about a deeper feeling of altruism among various sections of the community. It is becoming evident that the best-thought-out economic plans cannot achieve their objectives when individuals

equate happiness with having material possessions and attaining the immediate satisfaction of id impulses. In many ways, therefore, the problems facing our country are similar to those in the U.S.A., and it would seem to me that any future developments in the field of counseling must give due recognition to those fundamental issues related to morality and to the growth of rational-altruistic behavior.

## from Cyprus. . .

DEMETRIOS LEVENTIS

*Coordinator of Guidance and Vocational Orientation Services and Teacher of Greek, Famagusta  
First Gymnasium for Boys, Famagusta, Cyprus*

From 1971 till 1973 I attended the State University of New York at Albany, from which I received the MS in guidance and the EdS in counseling and personnel services. I did my field work requirement at the Milne High School, Albany, and my internship requirement at the Bureau of Guidance, New York State Education Department, Albany. During my second year of studies I worked as graduate assistant to the international student advisor at SUNYA. I also visited schools and agencies in Rochester and Boston and traveled to Montreal, Buffalo, and Washington, D.C.

Cyprus and the United States share the same Western cultural tradition. But Cyprus has a more cooperative individualism, while the United States has a more competitive individualism. Cypriots are more concerned with ideologies, while Americans are more pragmatic. Cypriot society is more restrictive, while the American one is more permissive. Cypriots live in a rather simple and

small society, while Americans live in a rather complex and vastly industrialized one.

In such a society as that of Cyprus, counselors do not encounter student problems deriving from differences in language, religion, or culture, as would their American counterparts. Furthermore, due to the homogeneity as well as the coherence of the society, Cypriot counselors have fewer encounters than American counselors with problems of isolation from family and society, problems deriving from social class differences, and problems due to the mobility of the population. Probably that is why American counselors usually work according to a theory that is more problem-solving oriented. And I wonder if it was not the isolation that resulted in the origin and spread of client-centered therapy in the United States. Counselors in Cyprus encounter fewer problems deriving from lack of values or lack of meaning in life than the American coun-

selor. However, they must be prepared to deal with many of these problems in the future, because the situation and many social conditions in Cyprus are on the verge of changing.

On the other hand, the Cypriot counselor faces problems that the American counselor does not, deriving from ideological differences in discussions where students tend to feel very strongly and also to express their feelings overtly (in some cases the students hit each other); from insults where one is accused of cowardliness in the reaction or lack of reaction to an insult; from great pressure on the part of the family and society on the individual to conform and to subordinate one's private life to the unwritten code and laws of society, especially for the females. Counselors have a hard time when they accept the individual differences and defend the rights of the individuals. A "strong" personality is therefore needed to uphold such individual rights while simultaneously having the respect of society, the values of which counselors also share.

Because curriculums are fixed and standardized tests nonexistent, the counselor in Cyprus has not some of the activities that the counselor in the U.S. has—programming the students' courses, administering aptitude and achievement tests, explaining the process and the results of these tests. On the other hand, Cypriot counselors must know the educational systems of other countries, the admission requirements, the cost of living, and so forth, because so many Cypriot students attend universities in Greece, England, and elsewhere. They have to know at least one foreign language in order to learn relevant information. They have to help the students make more crucial decisions after the third and sixth grade of the high school, because the programs of the senior gymnasiums and the university schools are not flexible. Counselors in the U.S. can therefore have easier access

to information about students and schools, although they deal with flexibility of the programs. Students in the U.S., on the other hand, are in a better position than students in Cyprus, because not only can they be helped in a better way but they also do not have to make crucial decisions as the students in Cyprus have to.

Counselors in Cyprus, in contrast with counselors of the United States, are not properly qualified. The lack of relevant books in Greek is an obstacle to their improving themselves. They are identified and evaluated rather as teachers, and their future professional steps are to become assistant principal, principal, and supervisor. Their concurrent work as teachers causes difficulties in their relations with students. The time restrictions do not allow them to accomplish sufficiently their tasks. They cannot help the students to understand themselves better by testing their abilities and personality characteristics, because such tests are not in use by counselors in Cyprus. They have not the facilities that counselors in the U.S. have.

On the other hand, the content of the pupil records can be highly confidential. The Cypriot counselor does not write recommendation letters or inform the principal and the teachers about the students' records. These last tasks are worked out by the principal and the clerical staff.

The better situation in the U.S. is obvious. The counselors are qualified, they are committed to their profession, and they have the necessary tools to help the students. They can also upgrade their counseling ability by reading the current literature of the field. Beyond these, the decentralization of the educational system, the money provided for guidance, and the continuous search for innovation and constructive change gives them the opportunity to use their initiative and to develop themselves and their services.



# from Nigeria. . .

EZEKIEL OLANIYI OLAOYE

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I stayed one year in the United States studying guidance and counseling. My program included eight weeks of field experience, which took me to state departments of education in New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio and to schools in three states. I visited schools in and around Albany, New York, and in Cleveland, Columbus, and Athens, Ohio; I also visited towns and villages in the Appalachian mountains.

I understood that New York State had some of the best guidance programs in the country and found this to be so in the schools I visited. Although my tours were "guided," I saw a variety of schools and a variety of guidance programs. I found the facilities in the schools adequate and the staff very determined to help the students. I was particularly impressed by the new "team concept" in pupil personnel service; here guidance counselors, social workers, health workers, etc., work as a team to help the student.

In this country, as in many others of the Third World, the United States (the whole country!) is thought of as a land of limitless opportunities and a place where nobody could live in poverty. But my visit to some villages in Appalachia and in the poor districts of East Lansing, Michigan, and Chicago, Illinois, showed me that poverty is not limited to developing countries. It also showed me that the guidance requirements of students from poor areas have to be different from those of students from rich suburbs. In the poor areas there are fewer opportunities, and the morale of the children is consequently low.

The contrasts I saw in my field experience are similar to what we have here in

Nigeria. Whereas there are areas with extensive development (with a variety of opportunities for jobs and advancement), there are also areas where development is almost nil. Programs therefore have to be planned to take into consideration the varying needs of the people in a vast country of over 370,000 square miles and great ethnic differences (among more than 200 different linguistic ethnic groups).

I have found that in Nigeria the non-directive approach to counseling does not go down easily with a large section of my clients. Our culture gives much respect to opinions of elders. When young people come for counseling, therefore, they come more with a view to "being told what to do" than being helped to explore themselves more thoroughly in order to be able to find an answer to their problems.

Our guidance programs are just starting, but I feel happy that I had a varied experience to guide me in making my recommendations, which should go a long way in determining the final guidance policy for our whole country. Our country is also lucky in having personnel who trained in various countries—the United States, Britain, and Australia. It is hoped that the experiences of all will finally help develop a guidance program that will be very rich and most appropriate for Nigerians.

Finally, I have great respect for the guidance and counseling programs in the United States. But I must confess that I saw some counselors in the poor school districts who were doing a disservice to the students. They made me feel that no counselor is better than a bad counselor!

# from Norway...

M. HELGE RØNNESTAD

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To set my reactions in a proper light, I need to say something quite briefly about my stay in the U.S.A. I have spent seven of the last ten years in different parts of the U.S. I have had the opportunity to study as well as work in different professional settings: as a counselor in a high school in Missouri, as a psychometric consultant in a project dealing with underprivileged American Indians, and as a counselor in university counseling centers in Arizona and Missouri.

In trying to organize my thoughts, I run into the problem of sorting out the characteristics of the specific geographical regions from the characteristics that may be typical for the U.S. at large. Attempting to look at and consider the U.S. as one country prevents one from seeing what is possibly the greatest difference between the U.S.A. and my country—the diversity and heterogeneity of the U.S., which represents possibly the greatest difficulty and challenge for the counseling profession.

I believe that the basic developmental tasks facing children, adolescents, and adults are applicable in Norway as well as in the U.S.A. Consequently, many of the problems that face the populations of the two countries are identical. However, I believe there are some differences also, differences more in degree than in kind. Because of these differences, the challenges of the counseling professions in the two countries vary. I believe that the counseling profession in the U.S.A. is confronted with greater difficulties and challenges than is the case in Norway, for the following four reasons.

First, for many people it is more

difficult to have basic needs satisfied in the U.S.A. This may sound paradoxical, considering the affluence of the American society. But I believe it is correct, partly because the U.S.A. represents a social and political system in which *what* someone does, the decisions one makes, has a much greater impact on one's social and economical situation than is the case in Norway. The consequence of this is that people making certain kinds of decisions, doing certain kinds of things, will face difficulties that are greater than would be the case if the same decisions were made in Norway. Americans choose their own destinies and have a chance to form them more than we can. The consequence is that not only the sense of success but also the sense of failure is more pronounced.

Second, the constantly changing American society is more difficult to live in. I believe that, as Alvin Toffler explained in *Future Shock*, people in the U.S. are exposed to a bombardment of stimuli and are continuously forced to adapt to changes—more so than in my country. According to Toffler, overstimulation potentially results in stress, apathy, and difficulties in establishing and maintaining satisfactory human contacts. If this is true, these are conditions that will represent great challenges to the counseling profession in the United States. Although our society is getting increasingly similar to that in the U.S., the prediction Toffler makes does not yet seem warranted for our society.

Third, making vocational decisions is more difficult in the States. There are at least two reasons for this, one of which



relates to the heterogeneity and complexity of the American labor market. Although there is no linear relationship between number of alternatives and complexity of choice, it is probable that a choice involving as many alternatives as are presented in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* is more apt to be complex. The other reason has been referred to already and pertains to the impact that a particular choice has on one's social and economical status. Other things being equal, we may say that as the impact of making particular decisions increases, the involvement in the decision-making process increases and hence the more complex the process.

Fourth, the cultural heterogeneity of the United States causes problems of interpersonal communication and understanding. In these times of racial conflict, this argument may seem superfluous. It is necessary, however, to differentiate

between two different expressions of this problem. One pertains to the apparent: how cultural differences, as expressed in different value systems, customs, and religious convictions, make difficult a clear and concise communication among people. This enhances the chance for discord and human conflict and adds to the need for a proficient counseling profession. The other expression pertains to the relationship between the counselor and the client. Differences in cultural background between counselor and client make it difficult for the counselor to assume the frame of reference of the client and communicate a precise understanding of what the client says. Although some measures have been taken to remedy this problem with certain minority groups, the problems of communication among people of different Caucasian subcultures within the United States is still not sufficiently recognized.

## from Switzerland. . .

ERNST STAUFFER

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My first visit to the U.S.A. occurred in 1966 and was confined mostly to the New York City area and supplemented by trips to Rochester, Chicago, and Baltimore. It was highlighted by my participation in the APGA Convention in Washington, D.C. My second sojourn occurred during the summer of 1973 and brought me across the country, the "home port" that time being the University of Minnesota. From there I made trips to Purdue University and as far as Western Washington State College at Bellingham and back again via San Fran-

cisco to Rochester and New York City, renewing friendships on the way in Philadelphia and Washington, D.C. On both visits I had repeated contacts with government offices in Washington, with state employment services in New York City, and with community agencies and multinational companies, all involved in guidance counseling, personnel selection, and placement.

Regarding the specific contributions of the U.S.A. and Switzerland in terms of counseling strategies—i.e., the way counselors organize and go about per-

forming their work—I should say that the merits of the American system lie in the domain of the long-term career planning approach, whereas the Swiss system is more helpful for short-term decision-making policy. American counselors, especially those working in the schools, lay stress on pursuing their tasks in the educational components of vocational choice. Their major concern is to help their clients solve problems of curriculum—remediating defective schoolwork or removing social and affective hurdles likely to jeopardize scholastic performance. The main purpose of their intervention is educational rather than vocational adjustment.

The striving of American counselors for self-clarification and self-actualization while working with their clients has to be viewed in this educational context. It explains also why they resort predominantly to the clinical approach in the helping process. In fact, American counselors, unlike their Swiss counterparts, have to deal as much with personal as with vocational problems. It would, however, be unfair to say that American counselors are relying on performing their tasks only on the clinical model. On the contrary, they have at their disposal a wide spectrum of excellent psychometric devices based on the trait and factor theory. These tools include power tests, interest questionnaires, and work value and vocational development inventories. They are validated on a statewide basis and play an important role in appraising both educational and vocational fitness.

Why do American counselors conceive their tasks predominantly in a long-range career planning perspective? There are two main reasons to explain this approach. The first pertains to their comprehensive educational system. American high schools have often been described as "talent farms," i.e., they want to provide their students the opportunity to reach the highest possible edu-

cational level. Most American adolescents are therefore "college bound." They keep on sitting on the school benches beyond high school. The general idea behind this is that every child should have equal chance to develop potentials and that the number of school years is the best guarantee of insuring later vocational adjustment. As a result, normal American teenagers do not commit themselves vocationally during their high school years. Their motto is "wait and see." In the meantime, they concentrate on complying with academic requirements. The obvious consequence is that vocational decision making is postponed until early adult life.

American adolescents have another major reason to adopt this course of action: Outside the channels of the school system they have few possibilities for vocational education and vocational training. It is true that vocational high schools and community colleges do a marvelous job in this respect; however, they are mostly located in the big cities and encompass only a limited range of occupational training programs. As for the high school dropouts, they are usually condemned to unskilled or semiskilled jobs. Not only training possibilities but also jobs are scarce for this age group, as the high unemployment rate testifies. Rather than to fill the ranks of the jobless, it is better, American counselors think, to prolong schooling as long as possible.

Swiss counselors are favorable to the psychological approach to counseling as practiced in the U.S., although as a whole they have not yet reached the same educational standards. They have adopted statistical models and psychological devices developed by American psychologists. Recently they have started to carry out research projects on the pattern of the American examples. The great advantage of this attitude is that it makes cross-cultural comparisons possible. The empirical evidence supplied by



the studies can provide useful feedback to American counseling psychologists.

Feedback can also be provided by institutional aspects of the work of the Swiss counselors. Their organizational status outside the school system and outside the state employment service places them in a better position, compared to

that of their American colleagues, to function between the organizations, to sponsor goal-directed attitudes, and to suggest convenient alternatives of vocational solutions likely to reduce the number of unhappy, floundering, and vocationally immature and unadjusted students.

## from Israel. . .

AVNER ZIV

*Director of the Counseling Program, School of Education, Tel Aviv University, Israel*

During the 1972-73 academic year I taught at Boston University and visited many other institutions. My observations should be seen as those of an Israeli professor trained at the Sorbonne in clinical psychology, a sympathetic and friendly critic who enjoyed the year but who feels compelled to make some observations that may seem to some Americans rather controversial.

On enthusiasm for the "new": I observed what appears to be an immense attraction in American culture to innovations, breakthroughs, and newness. I'm not sure that people necessarily believe that whatever is new is therefore good, but I had the impression that this trait is solidly anchored in American value structures. I noted that one of the most often used advertising techniques is the word "new." "New" sells. New techniques in counseling sell. From my viewpoint as a member of a Middle Eastern culture, newness has no intrinsic value. I must wonder, then, at what appears to me to be a fascination with newness in counseling practice.

On liberal bias: Most counselors and psychologists seem to share a similar liberal social outlook. So strongly do most

hold a liberal viewpoint that they reject other views. The result is a kind of strange conformity. Since most American academics in the social sciences entertain beliefs in equality of opportunity, social justice, and sympathizing with the underprivileged, those who do not share these views are likely to be attacked viciously. A case in point is Arthur Jensen; the situation is very well known. Frequently in journals and books of readings I have seen vigorous criticisms of Jensen—but not always of his data, his conclusions, or his methodologies.

On anti-intellectual trends: Perhaps because of disillusionment with research procedures, some counselors have decided to abandon research. The main idea is that if you feel it is right, go ahead and do it. One doesn't have to formulate hypotheses, gather data or develop ways of testing meaning, or even document findings. Just do it. The recent enormous enthusiasm for various kinds of sensitivity groups is a good illustration. People were supposed to "grow," whatever that might mean, and "change," but the more recent empirical research should have a sobering effect on the claims.

On ignorance of scholarship else-

where in the world: Is it because America is self-sufficient in every area that American counselors believe they can find all the answers—and even all the questions? Or is it a simple language barrier? I do not know. But I was astonished to find how little Americans know about studies in their own fields done in Europe or elsewhere. Piaget published his major ideas in the 1930s, but not until Flavell's book appeared in 1963 did most Americans become aware of him. And then came hundreds of research projects and educational innovations based on Piaget's theories. How would an American academic react if a Chinese researcher came to the United States and, without speaking a word of English and observing only a few families for six weeks, went home to China to write a book on American family life, using in the bibliography only Chinese references?

On the attraction of simple (I shrink from using "simplistic") theories: In the States books on counseling and therapy become best sellers. *I'm OK—You're OK* is "something else," and the rational-emotive approach, which explains behavior in the A-B-C format, is "far out"—as is, I suppose, primal scream therapy. I wonder what explains their tremendous appeal. Certainly it is not the hard data that support them.

On the avalanche of writing: As I think back over the enormous quantity of journals, I am frankly confused. It is impossible for individuals to keep up with what is being published. Also, I have the conviction that not all of the journal arti-

cles are significant breakthroughs. I even have the feeling that the function of many journals is to rescue professors from the fate that awaits those who do not publish. I have no solution. I will say only that I would like to keep up with what is published but simply cannot.

On the best place for learning: College and university students are bright, serious, and inquisitive. They work hard, and this is not necessarily the case elsewhere. There are rich interactions between students and faculty; the conferences, discussions, and "bull sessions" provide a good opportunity for each to learn from the other. The system, by and large, is efficient. Things get done, usually, rapidly and correctly. This is not unimportant. Despite complaints to the contrary, one can see that funds are available. Worthy projects can find backers and sponsors in the government and in private foundations. Academics in the U.S. tend to be in touch with others. Counselors and psychologists know what is happening in schools and other institutions. They do not suffer as much as others from the ivory tower complex. And they are not afraid of criticism from each other. Research—not all of it great—is being carried out to an impressive extent. The enormous bulk of research does guarantee many interesting and useful ideas. I am aware that this last point is not consistent with my comment relating to the alleged avalanche of writing, but I've learned to live with my own contradictions.

I conclude by saying that I would very much like to return soon and learn more.



# In the Field

*Reports of programs, practices, or techniques*

## Training Student Volunteers

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We live in a volunteer-oriented culture. From rural fire departments and local school boards to the widespread ACTION programs (Peace Corps, VISTA, etc.), citizens are called on to volunteer their time and efforts for the building of a new society or the maintenance of the old.

Volunteerism has long been visible in human service organizations. Traditionally, such work has involved the routine and often menial tasks with which the women's movement currently takes issue (Volunteerism, *Christian Science Monitor* 1973) and which minority groups have derided for years. The "new volunteerism" now surfacing in human services, however, is a more humanizing and less discriminatory experience. Increasingly, volunteers are being asked to take on demanding and important roles in service to others. Crisis centers and hotlines throughout the country, for ex-

ample, are staffed almost exclusively by volunteer personnel.

### THE PROGRAM AT CSU

The current program at Colorado State University is an attempt to systematize previous efforts at using volunteers in specific counseling center programs. The professional staff of the center had increasingly turned to student paraprofessionals, employing them in such services as co-leading or leading program workshops, aiding in the development and evaluation of programs, and organizing or preparing supplementary materials for programs. Evaluation of this work indicated that a wide variety of programs were being offered to students with less expenditure of professional time and no decrease in the quality of service. Slowly some volunteers had been added to work with the paraprofession-

als. These persons received training through the specific program in which they volunteered to work, but there were no systematic procedures for selection, training, evaluation, or transfer among programs.

The staff, both professional and paraprofessional, felt a need to develop such procedures in order to reach these three goals: (a) increasing services to students, (b) involving more students as service givers, and (c) providing student volunteers with specific skills and service experiences that would open additional career options to them.

### **The Three Levels**

Three levels of volunteer functioning were established. (Lists of specific competencies, evaluation tasks, and activities for each level are available from the senior author.) Under this system, students first qualify as Level I volunteers by passing competency examinations for specific basic skills. Examples of Level I skills are (a) demonstrating minimal ability in leading factual and/or structured discussion and (b) demonstrating ability in meeting responsibilities for task functions such as time, work deadlines, and procedures. Level I volunteers perform services in the center such as leading life planning workshops and running automated desensitization groups.

After demonstrating competence in one or more services at Level I, volunteers may qualify for training and evaluation at Level II. Level II skills include (a) being able to perform consistently at a 3.0 rating (minimal effectiveness on Carkhuff's 1.0-5.0 scale) in human relations training and (b) demonstrating knowledge of the counseling center program development and evaluation model (Moore & Delworth 1972; Morrill, Oetting & Hurst 1974). Level II volunteers perform such functions as co-leading communications skills workshops, conducting desensitization in-

takes, and training other volunteers in Level I skills.

Level III volunteers are fewest in number; they are trained to a higher degree of effectiveness in service, training, and supervision. They must demonstrate knowledge and skill in assessing psychopathology and in training and supervising other volunteers. Level III volunteers may lead or co-lead human relations training groups, co-lead therapy and/or counseling groups with counseling center professionals, and serve as process observers for individual or group counseling. Level III volunteers are frequently employed as paraprofessionals in the center, but this is not a necessary component of the system.

### **Training and Evaluation**

Students are evaluated for all levels on the basis of their performance on simulated tasks. If students have previously been trained in skills, they are evaluated through evening workshops designed to test these skills.

The majority of students, however, qualify as volunteers through a three-credit "core" helping skills course, in which they learn and are evaluated on all Level I and most Level II skills. A second class provides the human relations training necessary for Level II certification. At this time, training for Level III is offered more informally to a few Level II volunteers. The core class is taught and coordinated by a student paraprofessional, and there is substantial input by professionals, other paraprofessionals, and some advanced volunteers.

Students are selected on the basis of (a) interest in and commitment to working as a volunteer in counseling center programs and (b) performance on a Communications Index designed to indicate current level of helping ability (Carkhuff 1969). Approximately thirty students, most of them undergraduates, have taken the course each quarter. Several graduate students and community



members have taken it as well. In general, students in the class are majoring in psychology or social work, though a wide variety of academic majors is represented.

### **Training Model**

In all teaching functions, trainers operate from a model of systematic skill building. The training model is derived from the work of Moore and Delworth (1972) and is similar to Ivey's (1971) microcounseling approach. The main steps in the systematic skill building training model are as follows.

1. *Explain* to the trainees the objectives of the training procedure, describing exactly what that procedure entails.

2. *Demonstrate* the training procedure for the trainees so that they can observe the skill being effectively practiced. This modeling can be accomplished by several means: a lecture presentation studded with clear examples, an audiovisual model of the skill being effectively practiced, or a role-playing vignette by the trainers.

3. Provide an opportunity for trainees to *practice by role playing* the skill being learned; and/or provide an opportunity for trainees to *practice* the skill with the *actual* persons or situations to which the skill is applied. In both role playing and actual practice, *feedback* about effectiveness of *performance* is given the trainees by either the trainers or their peers. The skill is practiced until the requisite performance level is achieved.

4. Conduct a discussion in which trainees compare the trainer's objectives with the practice they have just finished; this *discussion* allows the trainees to *integrate* their understanding of the training objective with their own practice experience.

### **Volunteer Code of Ethics**

Volunteers are being trained in this program to participate in many helping activities that were once exclusively profes-

sional functions. Volunteers are in a difficult position: They are not considered professionals, yet they are, in many senses, helpers. To further accentuate this problem, the difference between the role definition of a helper and a helpee is not as clear as it is in the case of the professional. In education, background, and life style, the volunteer might be quite like the "consumer" (client) and might therefore tend to identify with the helpee role. This adds to the volunteer's confusion and expectations regarding responsibilities and ethics and leads the volunteer to question just where he or she fits in.

It is for both the client's protection and the volunteer's security that we have developed a volunteer code of ethics. This code is taught and practiced in the core class and in the volunteer's service in the center. The ethics guidelines include the following (the complete guidelines are available from the senior author):

1. Above all, respect for the client, the client's feelings, and the client's needs should be of prime importance.

2. Consultation with supervisors or professionals about problems should be done in a private manner and a private place.

3. Generally, volunteers should *not* have personal involvement with clients outside of the helping relationship (e.g., dating) during the course of the volunteer's helping interactions with the client.

### **CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PROGRAM**

#### **For the Staff**

At the time of this writing—the spring of 1974—the program at CSU has been fully operational for about one year. Thus far the great majority of students taking the course have volunteered in counseling center programs and have been evaluated as effective helpers by professional supervisors, paraprofessional supervisors, and students who have received their services. Several volunteers have been employed as para-

professionals, and many more are applying for positions.

Professionals and paraprofessionals report far greater amounts of time available to develop and initiate new programs and to further evaluate and redevelop existing ones. They also say that having basic core skills taught through a special class enables them to spend additional time and effort in training volunteers in their specific programs.

A good deal of time has been spent in setting up the system, developing training modules and evaluation tasks, and keeping records on volunteer performance. Professionals also have to be aided in understanding and using the new system. It seemed reasonable to expect at the outset that no great savings of time would accrue to the agency as a whole until the program had been in operation for at least a year, but in fact we did begin to see such savings of time throughout this first year.

Time savings resulting from volunteer services can best be illustrated by examining an actual program in its fourth year of operation. The program is the Student Couples' Seminar, a seven-session, sixteen-hour marital enrichment workshop offered by the counseling center. Each week a professional spends three hours supervising a paraprofessional and completing administrative tasks. The paraprofessional, in turn, spends about six hours a week preparing materials and training twelve volunteers (six co-leader pairs) to conduct the workshop for thirty to thirty-six student couples (sixty to seventy-two individuals). The result of three hours of professional and six hours of paraprofessional time is approximately one hundred twenty individual contact hours of weekly service.

### For the Volunteers

The volunteers report that they are learning very specific and relevant skills. We consider this type of program to be very different from many volunteer

programs that use volunteers without upgrading their skills in return. By actually working as a helper, the volunteer in the CSU program can test his or her ambitions to be a mental health worker without investing in three or four years of graduate school only to find that this goal was a false image. Also, there are two ways in which the student who decides on a mental health career can concretely use the skills and experience gained in the program. First, the competencies gained can help in admission to graduate school. Second, they can lead to post-BA employment in a variety of human service agencies. Colorado State University volunteers have found employment in behavior modification programs, community crisis centers, training agencies, and state hospitals. Most volunteers have been accepted to the graduate program of their choice in psychology, child development, and student personnel work.

Perhaps most important of all, student volunteers speak of the new feelings of competence and self-worth that have developed from mastery of skills and effective helping. The depersonalization and alienation fostered in our educational system has been described and attacked by many (Goffman 1963; Pearl 1972); a viable student volunteer program can aid in overcoming the "just a number" syndrome in higher education and can enable students to experience their true value to themselves and others. As H. Rap Brown has stated it (Pearl 1972, p. 271): "Education ain't just what comes out of the books, but it's everything that goes on in the school and if you leave school hating yourself, then it doesn't matter how much you know." ■

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## Academic Advising Reaches Out

GORDON B. STEIN, HENRY A. SPILLE

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The University of Wisconsin—Green Bay is concerned with a problem that is common to most institutions of higher education today: the relevance of higher education, which was questioned and challenged by the student activists of a few years ago. This questioning is now being expressed in the form of stabilizing, and in some cases decreasing, college enrollments. In an attempt to cope with the relevance problem, nontraditional approaches to the educational process are included in the UWGB academic plan. Students are encouraged to exercise freedom of choice and are urged to develop their own uniquely designed programs. This openness, however, tends to emphasize one aspect of an ancient problem, i.e., What is the best way for students to learn how to decide for themselves, not only in academic areas but also in the variety of experiences that make up the richly complex patterns of their lives?

The facet of the decision-making process that is the concern of this article is the difficulty most faculty members and administrators have in helping students who are in the "information-gathering" or "undecided" period of their academic careers. Faculty members frequently feel

quite uncomfortable with the process of helping "undecided" students gather sufficient data with which to make intelligent choices. At UWGB, therefore, an Office of Academic Advising was established with the specific function of helping to meet this need of the "undecided" student.

A large percentage of UWGB students are first-generation college students who commute to the campus and who seem unaware of the helping services available to them. Since an advisor's signature is not required for registration, it is possible that students might not see an advisor until their senior year. Accordingly, in the fall of 1971 it was decided that the advising office, to be effective in performing this major helping function, needed a practical outreach program that students *would* use.

### OUTREACH EXPERIMENTATION

Experimentation with a variety of approaches was attempted. Based on information that students supplied with their admissions test data and at registration, letters were sent asking them to come to the advising office for assistance.

Posters and signs were placed in strategic locations. The faculty was asked to refer students. When none of these approaches proved satisfactory, it was decided to take the advising service outside of the advising office.

Temporary use was made of a conference room near the registration office during heavy registration periods, and intermittent use was made of an advising table in an area adjacent to the cafeteria and snack bar. Advising seminars were conducted in the student apartment complex. One advisor lived for a year in the student apartments and was unofficially on call at all times. Student response to these outreach efforts was sporadic and minimal.

Advisors needed to be still more visible and accessible to larger numbers of students. In an attempt to achieve this goal, advising tables were placed in the school corridors. To determine the best location for these tables, student traffic patterns through the corridors were observed and traffic counts were taken. On the basis of this information, two locations passed by nearly every student at some time during the week were identified. Fortunately, the locations were contiguous to "people pockets," small indentations in the corridor walls that are furnished informally to foster student-to-student and faculty-to-student interaction. Two "people pockets" were used for the placement of tables. The tables, then, were placed in areas that students were accustomed to using, making it easy for them to step out of their normal traffic patterns and discuss their concerns. Thus, the locations were chosen with an appreciation of the type and number of students using that route and the need for a natural geographical opportunity for them to ease out of the traffic flow when desired.

Very bright, eye-catching posters were used to insure that students would notice the opportunity to receive help. A particularly effective sign in red, blue, and

orange questioned: "To drop or not to drop?" Students frequently procrastinate over the problem of whether or not to drop a course, and, in the process of worrying, may miss the drop deadline.

## RESULTS OF HALLWAY ADVISING

Some major problems have been and continue to be readily apparent. It takes a considerable amount of poise, maturity, and courage on the part of advisors to leave the quiet and security of the office and plunge totally into the students' milieu. First, one might feel guilty sitting at the table in a very exposed position with no students coming for services. The compulsive Puritan ethic creates severe distress; an advisor is in full view of the public—doing nothing. Second, one might be faced with the equally difficult feeling of panic in the opposite situation: too many students impatiently (or patiently) waiting for help. After nearly two years of exposure, advisors have found that these feelings have lessened, but they do remain and probably always will remain to some extent.

Several important results have been noted. First, the number of appointments in advisors' offices has more than doubled since the beginning of the table program. More students are coming in for information and for assistance in making decisions. Contacts at the tables are just as frequent as before but are generally shorter, more in the nature of single-question interactions. These short exchanges, however, frequently lead to individual office appointments at another time. Second, bulletins posted around the tables remind students of such critical concerns as drop deadlines, academic rule changes, or any academic items that someone in the university community identifies as suffering from a lack of student awareness. It is believed that this has helped to decrease normal student procrastination. Third, advisors have become much better known, and interaction frequently takes place infor-



mally anywhere on the campus that students and advisors happen to meet.

## DEVELOPING PARAPROFESSIONALS

Another effort that has been initiated by the advising office is the extension of this outreach program through the use of extensively trained paraprofessional students as advisors for new, incoming students; their student contact is made in such informal settings as the cafeteria and the "people pockets." A two-semester sequence of courses was designed to train students in the various skills an advisor needs. The first semester course, offered in the spring of 1973, had a classroom format. The second semester course, offered in the fall of 1973, was a practicum in which a small group of incoming freshmen became the responsibility of each trained paraprofessional student advisor. These courses were offered for degree credit and were entitled, respectively, "The Helping Process" and "The Helping Process Practicum."

The first semester included sections on human relations skills and specific encounters with each of the various areas of the university bureaucracy with which students typically seem to have problems—the registrar's office, the financial aids office, the library, the student counseling center, and so on. A section on academic advising was included, since that was the core around which all the skills would revolve. It is important to note that these students were trained as advisors and friendly interveners, not as counselors. The human relations skills were intended to strengthen the ability to hear another person and the ability to communicate clearly, not to develop full-fledged counseling ability.

An evaluation of the training program by the students indicated that the class imparted a fairly good human relations impact but needed improvement in the portions dealing with problems that came from the various bureaucratic stu-

dent service areas of the university. Accordingly, the syllabus of the course was rewritten at the end of the semester and a tightly organized experience developed.

The syllabus now includes, instead of up to nine hours of classroom time for an area of the university such as the registrar's office, no more than one session of an hour and a half for each area. A take-home examination, completed prior to a particular session, is used as a guide for student-instructor interaction during that session. The instructor in each particular session is a key figure from the department or area under discussion. The completed take-home exam is then turned in a week after the session. The students have therefore had the benefit of the interaction with a key individual from each department under study as well as the previous work on the take-home exam. The human relations part of the course includes specific readings on human relations skills, structured exercises to develop these skills, and a variety of unstructured experiences to deepen the learning process. The unstructured experiences include workshops in various therapeutic skills, unstructured basic encounter groups, and relatively structured film discussion sessions.

This course is committed to be a regularly scheduled offering for the professional social services major and may be included in the professional teaching major and in one of the liberal arts majors. The course content has been broadened so that it will be appropriate for the student who is interested in enhancing his or her own ability to cope with the university as well as the student who intends to be a "helper" either later in life or now in one of the university's student service areas (financial aids office, information center, etc.). Typically, these jobs are filled by work-study students, and administrators seem to be delighted to have such highly trained individuals available.

The course originally held and still maintains the posture of not training people to become counselors but rather preparing people who are existentially oriented toward helping others. Specifically, helping involves a recognition and knowledge of what types of problems students encounter. The paraprofessional is trained to know whom to go to and how to help a student solve a problem (without solving the problem for the student).

The fall practicum as offered in 1973 had several specific problems. The most significant difficulty was that most freshmen were not sufficiently interested in utilizing the kind of an experience the student paraprofessionals had to offer. There were enough freshmen in the program to verify satisfactorily the effectiveness of the training of our student advisors, but not enough were involved to permit the assumption that the approach was viable for the overall freshman class.

### **MORE IDEAS TO TRY**

As an outgrowth of the experiences of the fall 1973 practicum, the advising office will be attempting some new outreach programs in the fall of 1974. Paraprofessional student advisors will be used as informal advisors during final registration week. They will be in specific, well-frequented locations, and the locations and available times will be well publicized. This will be continued throughout the first two weeks of classes. Also, seminars will be held on a weekly basis for the purpose of giving the student body exposure to key personnel in each of the student service areas. Hopefully, problems can be discussed and "bureaucratic personnel" will be more readily thought of as real people. Paraprofessionals will help plan and conduct the seminars.

A particularly fine result of the practicum was the decision to revise the college's Timetable to make it a complete

information source for the student. In the fall of 1974 the Timetable will contain an excellent cross-index so that students can easily find the answers to most questions concerning academic regulations. Paraprofessionals will be utilized to instruct new students in the use of the Timetable at orientation sessions. This should eventually cut down on the amount of outreach activity that is currently necessary.

Another interesting plan is a question-answer bulletin board system with locations at the student apartments, at the advising tables, outside the advising office, at a new outreach area in the studio arts building, and possibly near the registrar's office. This system will allow students to indicate concern with an answer having multiple impact. Finally, a planning advisory group will be set up and maintained on a continuing basis. It will include students, advisors, and members from each of the "bureaucratic" student service areas. Feedback on student reaction to the administration of the school will thus be currently and readily available to each of the key student service personnel who have responsibility for making changes and carrying out policies that affect students.

### **CONCLUSION**

The outreach programs described here have had five major effects: The number of advising office appointments has more than doubled; student procrastination concerning academic deadlines seems reduced; informal interaction of students and advisors has significantly increased; an ever-increasing cadre of highly trained paraprofessional student helpers is being developed; and outreach ideas continue to proliferate. It is felt that this type of outreach program emphasizes the students' freedom of choice while making them aware that the opportunity for help in making decisions is readily available. ■



# Three Practices to Reach Students

HENRY ZACHARIAS ROSNER

Henry Zacharias Rosner is Director of Guidance, Englewood Public Schools, Englewood, New Jersey.

Our guidance staff has been very concerned with the criticism directed at us in the past few years—criticism that often rang with what sounded like truth—so we began to do some soul-searching and evaluating of the kind of service we were offering.

Some of our critics spoke of “inflexibility,” “inaccessibility,” and “inefficiency.” We had to agree with those descriptions, so we set out to make changes on our own that could help us become more effective both individually and as a body. First, we allowed students to choose their counselors; second, we allowed counselors to arrange their own schedules; third, we recruited volunteers from the community.

## CHOICE OF COUNSELOR

It occurred to some of us that the assignment of counselees to a counselor, whether alphabetically, by grade level, or by homeroom, was an arbitrary move implying that the relationship between the counselor and the student was really irrelevant. Once assigned always assigned. And what did that say about our desire to give help to and relate to a young person? For us there was no justifying keeping incompatible souls together; even marriage gives more leeway these days.

For the sake of organization and conservatism, we decided that counselors would be assigned to homerooms across grade levels but that no student—or counselor, for that matter—would be obliged to continue in a poor relation-

ship. In this setup, the student and counselor are free to come to me to discuss their desire to separate and go on to someone new. However, it is not a matter of catch-as-catch-can changing; it is a matter of intelligently discussing the requested change. In a student body of 1,300 students, about 90 have selected another counselor.

The request for a change may come from the student, the family, a teacher, or the counselor. I hear the matter through and then approach the counselor. The next step is very much up to that counselor. Usually the counselor very willingly permits the change and no further discussion is needed except to ascertain whether or not the “new” counselor is willing to accept an additional charge (this is generally no problem at all). The counselor does have the option of refusing the change if he or she feels the matter can be worked out; that option has been used in only one case, and two years later the student is glad for the “permission denied.”

Sometimes the “old” counselor would like to clarify the problem with the counselee, and I encourage that, although trying to rebuild an unsatisfactory counselor-counselee relationship under those conditions is rarely successful. I reserve the right to deny a request but rarely exercise it. I would if I felt that the parties were momentarily irrational and that by tomorrow all would be well again.

Of course, not every counselor is equally popular, as not every one is equally talented. (My observation is that the two characteristics go hand in hand;

besides, "favors" granted by counselors are monitored by me, so there is no "easy touch" in the guidance office who will change a schedule at the drop of an influential parent's telephone receiver.) The most frequently chosen counselor accepts the heaviest counseling load as part of the responsibility of being able. The counselor who has the fewest counselees has some important duties concerning testing and scholarships, areas in which this counselor excels beyond the rest of us.

Our flexibility is generally praised. We cannot please everyone, but parents, children, and teachers agree that they are better able to deal with guidance when the personalities mesh. As for the counselors, we do not feel that the sky has fallen because we've lost a counselee or because the counselor next door has two dozen more counselees. Counselors accept these differences and recognize that no one succeeds with everyone and that part of our moral obligation to our counselees is to provide the best service possible, which sometimes means finding someone else to provide that service.

### ALTERNATIVE HOURS

Locked in by a contract, but encouraged by a creative administrator, our time schedule became an important consideration. As I watched the pattern of appointments, it was clear that our 8:10-3:10 teachers' schedule was satisfying neither students' needs for counseling nor counselors' needs to counsel. Many parents in our community are paid hourly and are in many cases working when we are, thus making it difficult at best for them to visit school. Our many young people in work-study programs, having afternoon jobs and tight morning schedules, received little counseling assistance. Our athletes suffered for the same reasons. There simply was no way to justify following the teachers' schedule except to say that it was school tradition,

and the dutiful among us were here until the parking lot had long since emptied, working on their own time.

Evening hours for counselors was suggested here and there, but we took enormous exception to the idea. To add evening hours for no extra pay to the already voluntarily extended hours some of us were giving was beyond the call of duty. Exhausted and exploited professionals cannot give their all, so we decided to adjust the counselors' work day to meet individual needs. Counselors evaluated the pattern of their counselees' demands as well as their own personal effectiveness. Three of our six counselors decided that the teachers' schedule, with extra voluntary hours where needed, was best for them, while three chose to adjust their schedules two days per week. One chose a split schedule—mornings and late evenings. Another elected to come in at noon and work through until 7:00 P.M. Still another adjusted her schedule to begin at 10:00 A.M. and end at 5:00 P.M.

At all times the counselors feel it their obligation to return to the existing structure at the request of any student, teacher, or parent who needs professional help during the regular school day. The schedules worked out were created to help young people, not to provide an excuse for indolence.

### A VOLUNTEER SERVICE

One of the major practical blocks to establishing a counselor-counselee relationship was the lack of time available because of the counselor's clerical burden. Even in an office with three full-time secretaries, there was a sizable load of paper work for the counselor. Funds, of course, were not available for extra part-time employees, and the use of student aides was likely to cause criticism from suspicious faculty and community members because of their concern about the confidentiality of records.

It occurred to us that, in a community



with many retired people and many mature housewives whose families were grown and gone, volunteers were out there waiting for the chance to help—and indeed they were. A few calls to senior citizens' organizations and the League of Women Voters were all that was needed: Responsible, intelligent, reliable, *free* aides came to us, eagerly accepting the tasks we gave them. What was a boon to the department, however, is still more of a boon to the volunteers, whose sense of personal dignity is restored by the feeling that they are giving to the community and making a contribution. Of course, there are always some who criticize even the successful program, and the community has been critical of us for allowing retirees to have access to confidential material and for running the risk that the volunteers may somehow reveal "secrets" seen or heard in guidance to a neighbor who has a cousin who has a son who. . . . Our volunteers are screened and trained and trusted, with good results.

## EVALUATION

No system or plan is perfect, and nothing is destined to succeed without problems. We've had ours.

The counselors' new schedules make it difficult to arrange spur-of-the-moment meetings to discuss some emergency. Having been accustomed to the traditional time schedule, I find it quite frustrating to dial a counselor only to find that it's the counselor's free morning, or to visit another only to find a closed door

and a sign reading "Evening Hours Today."

The counselees who are in sudden need of their counselors also suffer in our system, and we have had to do more pinch-hitting than before. The advantages of the system seem to outweigh the disadvantages, however, and we hope to continue with adjustments after we have evaluated the counselors' responses.

Our volunteer program has had its difficulties too; not all the volunteers stayed with us. Two of our aides discovered that they were quite adept at the job and, with my encouragement, began considering paid employment; one of them is now the guidance secretary in our middle school, and the other is the secretary to our attendance officer. One dutiful assistant found that the pressures of our busy office became too much and that the changes in our school since the time of her son's graduation twelve years before were difficult to adjust to.

Some volunteers find that family and social obligations are greater than they had anticipated, so we try to arrange hours for them that are as flexible as possible. Rather than assigning specified hours, we have found it better to phone some volunteers when we have some emergency overload of work.

We have presented here only three suggestions for guidance departments to consider in their efforts to reach out and touch more of the students for whom they are in so many ways responsible. They need, of course, the support of the faculty, the encouragement of the administration, and perhaps most important, the cooperation of the guidance staff. ■

# Research in Counseling

Richard W. Warner, Jr., Column Editor

*This column is based on the belief that research can provide meaningful data to the practicing counselor. While individual studies may not provide sufficient data on which to act, a combination of separate research efforts or a large-scale, long-term research project does have the possibility of providing sufficient data. This column will undertake to provide that data by either reviewing the current research in a specific area or examining the results from a long-term project. The emphasis will be on implications for the counselor, so there will be little if any information on research design or statistical procedures. Readers desiring more detail about a particular study should write directly to the original author(s). Readers who desire to have the results of their research and/or innovative approaches considered for review in this column should send the material to Richard W. Warner, Jr., Counselor Education, 2054 Haley Center, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama 36830.*

## Consulting with Parents

The emerging role of counselor as consultant to a variety of individuals has captured the attention of many within our profession. The literature is replete with recommendations for consultation practices. The entire December 1972 issue of the *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling* journal (Carlson 1972) was devoted to this topic, and several books on consultation have been published in the last five years. In each case counselors are urged to get on with it, but many may be asking, "Is this just another bandwagon?" "What difference will it make if I do?" As Lewis (1970a, p. 300) has indicated, consultation should be based "not solely through consensus, but on the basis of concrete data obtained through experimental research." This review is an attempt to examine some of the data reported in the literature as they apply to consultation with parents.

While consulting with parents is generally viewed as a developmental strategy, much of the research has focused on the effects of parental consulting from a remediation standpoint. It has been primarily concerned with programs for parents of elementary school children.

Several studies have compared the effects of a parental consulting program on

achievement level of students against a no-treatment control group. Research on parental programs reported by Chico State College (Modification . . . 1968), dealing with parents of first, seventh, and ninth graders; Radin (1969), parents of kindergarten children; Duncan and Fitzgerald (1969), parents of senior high students; Pigott and Gilmore (1969), parents of elementary, junior high, and senior high students; Meyers (1971), parents of sixth graders; Grossman (1971), parents of high school students; Gilmore (1971a), parents of elementary children; Gilmore (1971b), parents of elementary and junior high students; Edgerly (1971), parents of junior high students; and Duff (1972), parents of fifth grade students all found that working with parents on an ongoing basis had beneficial effects on the achievement level of students. It should be noted that these investigations covered parents of children in kindergarten through senior high. Further, while these programs had positive results, the parent programs were not compared with the effects of counseling with the students. They were compared simply to the effects of no special treatment. Two reports, Kranzler (1969) and North Dakota University (Effectiveness . . . 1969), did compare the effects on



achievement level of students from consulting with parents and direct counseling, and both reported no evidence that one approach was better than the other. In fact, neither one was very effective.

Consulting with parents to bring about behavioral changes in students is a second area to which several researchers have addressed themselves. Studies by McWhirter (1966), dealing with parents of sophomores; Chico State College (Modification . . . 1968), parents of elementary, junior high, and senior high students; Hillman (1968), parents of elementary students; Duncan and Fitzgerald (1969), parents of junior high students; Camp and Rothney (1970), parents of sophomores; Stearn (1970), parents of elementary students; Carkhuff and Bierman (1970), parents of emotionally disturbed students; Larson (1972), parents of junior high students; and Bird (1973), parents of behaviorally disturbed students all reported that consulting with parents had positive effects on the behavior of children. Once again, however, it is necessary to point out that these studies compared the effects of a parent program only against no program at all. In studies that compared the effect on behavior of a parental consulting program against direct counseling with students, Palmo (1972) reported that a parent program was more effective, but studies reported by Kranzler (1969), North Dakota University (Effectiveness . . . 1969), and Lewis (1970b) found no differences between the two approaches. Three other studies, DeeGeorge (1970), Gordon (1971), and Platt (1971), indicated that a combination of direct counseling and parent consulting is the most effective technique for bringing about behavioral changes in students.

### IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

The research reported here may answer some of the questions raised earlier, but it is also clear that there is a crying need for extensive research programs that will examine in detail the relative effects of consulting and counseling. The clearest finding at this point is that when consulting with parents is combined with counseling with students there is a good prognosis for success. For counselors who wish to get parent programs started,

there do appear to be some key elements that emerge from the research reviewed here.

1. Parent consulting should be a systematic plan for working with parents over an extended period of time rather than a one- or two-meeting kind of program.

2. Counselors who have not received any training in consulting or working with parents in a systematic way should seek such training either through inservice or other educational programs. Counselor education programs need to respond to this need by including, in their preservice programs, training in consulting.

3. In developing such a program, counselors need to carefully plan the objectives and the activities to accomplish those objectives. Simply getting a group of parents together with no particular goal in mind is not enough.

4. Counselors need to strike a balance between being an expert on child development and a partner with parents. Since parents may be more relaxed in a neutral site, consideration should be given to ways to operate the program away from school buildings.

5. Those programs that are experiencing success in one form or another focus on helping parents understand the relationships between their behavior and their children's behavior; on improving communications between parent and child; and on how to shape the home environment so that it is dominated by positive reinforcement rather than negative control.

6. While consulting with parents has received much of its emphasis at the elementary level, there is enough evidence to warrant its use at the junior and senior high levels as well.

7. While the research cited here deals with problems of remediation, counselors are urged to consider ways in which parent consulting can be built into an ongoing developmental guidance program. The evidence reviewed here indicates that such a program may pay more dividends when combined with direct involvement with students.

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# Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

*Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006.*

**The Criminal Justice System: Its Functions and Personnel** by George T. Felkenes. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1973. 308 pp. \$9.95.

Whether the system is more just or criminal, many P&G'ers need to know how it works. This the book describes, though burdened by chapter-end questions for the "beginning student." Answers are here if you are curious about *amicus curiae*, the difference between public defenders and court-appointed counsel, or the difference between criminalists and forensic scientists. Major topics are law enforcement, prosecution, courts, and corrections. A basic resource for those who assist clients who become criminals, vice versa, or versa vices.

**The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education** by Lewis B. Mayhew. Jossey-Bass, Inc., 615 Montgomery St., San Francisco 94111. 1973. 441 pp. \$13.50.

Subtitled "A Critical Analysis of the Reports and Recommendations," this substantial and substantive book summarizes "more than fifty documents ranging from relatively few pages to almost a thousand pages." Interested readers short of time are well served by these economical epitomes, each accompanied by a critique in which Mayhew may come close to mayhem; himself author of one report, he critiques it with club in hand. He also provides chapters that put the reports in past and future contexts. An exemplary exercise of scholarly excellence.

**Assessing Students on the Way to College.** American College Testing Program, P.O. Box 188, Iowa City 52240. Vol. 1: **Technical Report for the ACT Assessment Program.** 1973. 402 pp. \$5.00 paperback. Vol. 2: **College Student Profiles: Norms for the ACT Assessment.** 1972. 328 pp. \$3.00 paperback. Both volumes: \$6.00, boxed with **Highlights of the ACT Technical Report.** 1973. 26 pp. Free paperback.

This combination of research background and normative data makes clear that the American College Testing Program is not an ACT of God. The widely used program is a product of human labor and subject to human error. Cautions are contained in these publications themselves regarding inherent limitations of the instruments and of their use, whether in selection or counseling. Volume 1 presents the program's rationale, development, evaluation, and uses, the final chapter focusing on biases that might under- or overestimate college grades for particular groups or individuals. Volume 2, basically a book of norms, appends useful supplementary information. *Highlights* is a one-ACT recap.

**Directory of Special Programs for Minority Group Members, 1974: Career Information Services, Employment Skills Banks, Financial Aid** edited by Willis L. Johnson. Garrett Park Press, Garrett Park, Maryland 20766. 1973. 384 pp. \$7.95 paperback.

Prepared basically for blacks, American Indians, Asian Americans, and Spanish speaking or surnamed, this 8½ x 11 multi-listing of educational, employment, and related pro-

grams includes pertinent information for women as well. The material is logically organized and easily usable, with five appendices and other supplementation.

**Psychological Report Writing: Theory and Practice** by Joseph W. Hollis and Patsy A. Donn. Accelerated Development, Publication Division, P.O. Box 667, Muncie, Indiana 47306. 1973. 273 pp. \$6.25 paperback.

These counseling psychologists provide, in this 8½ x 11 volume, a comprehensive guide to the purposes of various reports, philosophical and ethical considerations, and data-gathering methods, as well as to report format and style. Numerous "exemplary materials" are exhibited: forms, outlines, and samples. Humorous cartoons lighten what could have been a heavy effort to enlighten. Students and practitioners can profit from this inexpensive aid.

**Readings in Managerial Psychology** edited by Harold J. Leavitt and Louis R. Pondy. Revised edition. University of Chicago Press, 5801 Ellis Ave., Chicago 60637. 1973. 787 pp. \$15.00 hardbound; \$5.95 paperback.

P&G'ers who feel that "what's good for management may not be good for man" will find similar concern expressed by Erich Fromm and other authors in this eclectic selection, whose editors emphasize openness and adaptiveness, as "there is no one best way of dealing with people in organizations." All 46 papers (36 new to this edition) deal with individuals, organizations, or their interactions. Divided into 14 parts, each with an editors' introduction, the papers often perch on the cutting edge of theory and practice applicable to organizational change based on the best information from the behavioral sciences.

**Individual Differences in Children** edited by Jack C. Westman. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 605 Third Ave., New York 10016. 1973. 345 pp. \$15.95.

Published and unpublished papers are here put together in a package neatly tied with six introductions and an epilogue by a deft editor who also contributed to 2 of the 16 chapters. He stresses the need to recognize both similarities and unique qualities in individuals and stresses the role of participant obser-

vation in natural life settings as a source of clues to determinants of behavior. Pertinent content is provided by the book's five parts: "Foundations," "Developmental Perspectives," "Situational Perspectives," "Research Models," and "Clinical Applications."

**Issues in Social Ecology: Human Milieus** edited by Rudolf H. Moos and Paul M. Insel. National Press Books, 285 Hamilton Ave., Palo Alto, California 94301. 1974. 616 pp. \$11.95 hardbound, \$7.95 paperback.

"Social ecology may be viewed as the multidisciplinary study of the impact that physical and social environments have on human beings." Many indeed are the environmental impacts and the pertinent disciplines: The 44 chapters range from "Moonlight and Nervous Disorders," "Population Density and Pathology," "Carpeting the Ward," and "The Ecology of Isolated Groups" to mundane milieus—"The Experience of Living in Cities," "Big Schools—Small Schools," "Seating Arrangements and Status," and such specific settings as college residence halls, medical schools, and churches. In "B = f(P,E)" George Stern shows how it all goes back to Kurt Lewin and his view of behavior as a product of person and environment. Moos and Insel are to be commended on their orderly 10-part compilation and their 10 commentaries.

**Divorce Counseling: A Workbook for the Couple and Their Counselor** by Ace L. Tubbs. Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 19 N. Jackson St., Danville, Illinois 61832. 1973. 89 pp. \$2.95 paperback.

A long-time minister and marriage counselor, Tubbs also found himself doing pre-divorce, divorce, and post-divorce counseling, as well as some remarriage counseling. All these are discussed in this large-size book, which engages the participation of partners about to part. Consideration of pertinent factors is facilitated through checklists, other aids, and relevant information. The serious substance is relieved by occasional humor, both intended (heading: "High Cost of Leaving") and unintended (under "Where to Meet Men or Women" after divorce: "A woman might consider a trip to Alaska to live. Men far outnumber women in Alaska.").



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# Book Reviews

Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to the Editor, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

|                                                                                                                                |       |                                                                                                                                                                               |       |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|
| <b>Youth—Toward Personal Growth: A Rational-Emotive Approach</b> by Donald J. Tosi                                             | p. 74 | <b>MUST: Manual for Users of Standardized Tests</b> by Jonell H. Kirby, William H. Culp, and Joe Kirby                                                                        | p. 78 |
| <b>Development and Management of School Guidance Programs</b> by Robert L. Gibson, Marianne H. Mitchell, and Robert E. Higgins | p. 76 | <b>Personal and Vocational Interplay in Identity Building</b> by Jeannette G. Friend                                                                                          | p. 78 |
| <b>Vocational Guidance and Human Development</b> edited by Edwin L. Herr                                                       | p. 76 | <b>Human Relations Development: A Manual for Educators</b> by George M. Gazda, Frank R. Asbury, Fred J. Balzer, William C. Childers, R. Eric Desselle, and Richard P. Walters | p. 79 |
| <b>The Counselor-in-Training</b> by Susan K. Gilmore                                                                           | p. 77 |                                                                                                                                                                               |       |

**Youth—Toward Personal Growth: A Rational-Emotive Approach** by Donald J. Tosi. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1974. 161 pp. \$3.95 paperback.

Youth, for the purposes of this book, is a developmental stage preceding adulthood and covering the period from 16 to 30 years of age. This book is written for counselors who work with this age group and is an attempt to apply the theory and practice of Albert Ellis' rational-emotive therapy (RET) to counseling youth.

The first of the book's six chapters presents a model for human growth and development, parameters of the counseling process, and the goals of counseling, all in 21 pages. Chapter 2 presents the concepts and philosophy of RET; chapter 3 describes Ellis' 10 irrational ideas and their rational alternatives; chapter 4 describes specific techniques of RET; chapter 5 presents transcripts of RET counseling sessions with youth; and chapter 6 describes RET group counseling with youth.

The book will serve as a good introduction to RET for counselors and others who work with youth; but it will have to stop there, for it is an introduction, an overview, rather than a complete presentation. For example, the descriptions of techniques of RET include the ABC's of emotional control, rational-emotive modeling, the Premack principle of reinforcement in rational-emotive counseling, rational-emotive assertive training, cognitive control methods (a la Lazarus), rational-

emotive imagery, systematic written homework, systematic desensitization, and the use of tape listening. All of these techniques have potential applications by counselors, but little attention is given to describing these applications. Left unanswered are such questions as when to use each technique, for whom each technique is appropriate or inappropriate, and what the specific step-by-step procedures for each technique are. These questions can be answered by the reader after trial and error attempts are made in practice, but since Tosi probably has the answers from his own experience, it would have made the book more useful to have included the information.

The book is written in an easily read style, and the rational-emotive concepts are clear and understandable without previous knowledge. The transcripts are very helpful in understanding the process and include introductory material describing what to look for in the interviews. Examples are plentiful throughout the book, and while the language may be too earthy for some, the situations are typical and realistic. The chapter on group counseling is helpful for experienced group counselors but too brief for the beginner.

This book is one of the Merrill Counseling Youth Series, and for what it is intended to be—an introductory overview of the rational-emotive counseling process with youth—it is well worth the price.—Arthur M. Horne, Indiana State University, Terre Haute.

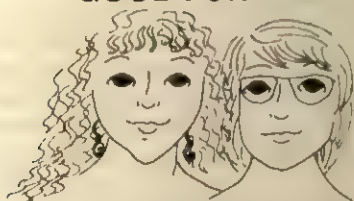


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**Development and Management of School Guidance Programs** by Robert L. Gibson, Marianne H. Mitchell, and Robert E. Higgins. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1973. 256 pp. \$5.95.

This book is practical and well organized. The authors have written and arranged the material in a parsimonious and succinct format that is provocative, lucid, and vivid to the reader. The material seems to be designed for the beginning counselor and the neophyte director of guidance or pupil personnel services, but it might also serve as a highly appropriate handbook for practitioners at all levels of the guidance services. The lay person seeking to understand the procedures and practices within guidance programs will find this material enlightening as to functional aspects of programs and personnel in the guidance area.

The book is divided into eight chapters: an introduction, "The Personnel for Guidance," "Initiating and Developing School Guidance Programs," "Program Leadership and Management," "The Elementary School Guidance Program," "The Secondary School Guidance Program," "The Guidance and Student Personnel Program in the Junior Community College," and "Evaluation and Change." The authors present a sound historical and philosophical base for guidance services in American society. Their discussion of guidance personnel reveals the significance of the guidance and counseling specialist working cooperatively with other school personnel who contribute to the guidance gestalt.

Material on initiating and developing school guidance programs is comprehensive, and the methodology for implementation is well illustrated. Program leadership and management in the guidance services cannot be overemphasized, and success of a guidance program in any school system is contingent on top-quality leadership and a superior management system; the authors have offered some appropriate alternatives in these areas. Chapters 5, 6, and 7 deal most adequately with the organizational and functional design of guidance programs for the elementary school, the secondary school, and the junior community college. Middle and junior high school guidance programs, however, are given only brief attention. The final chapter, on evaluation and change, is the capstone of the text.

The authors provide a brief preview and a set of objectives at the beginning of each chapter. The well-stated objectives alert the reader to major concepts presented in the material as well as providing the reader with criteria for evaluating what was absorbed.—Neil C. Gunter, *Georgia Department of Education, Atlanta.*

**Vocational Guidance and Human Development** edited by Edwin L. Herr. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1974. 596 pp. \$10.95.

Like its predecessor, *Man in a World at Work* (1964), this volume is intended to provide "the profession's best thinking" about new knowledge and practices in vocational guidance and human development and to speculate about future national and international directions. A more accurate title would have been "How the Vocational Development Club Looks at Vocational Life Here and Abroad." The APGA sponsors of this enterprise have ignored the contributions of Campbell, Carkhuff, Lofquist, Dawis, and others. Perhaps a companion piece called "Other Points of View" should also have been commissioned.

Even if the reader can forgive the vocational development bias, the content of this sprawling volume is still only occasionally new or instructive. Three chapters on perspectives on vocational guidance provide a history and world view by Borow, Herr, and Super. Six chapters interpret the human environment, but most chapters are rehashes of older books and journal articles. Only three chapters are devoted to concepts of career development, and two of these are modest revisions of recent works. Jordaan's chapter, on life stages as organizing modes of career development, gets my only gold star. He manages to integrate and illuminate the developmental view with clarity, perspicacity, and data.

The largest portion of the book is devoted to the professional world of vocational guidance. Only one of eight chapters provides the practitioner with a clear and useful summary of some new and practical knowledge. Bergland's chapter on career planning provides a helpful account of how to teach decision making to adolescents. Hershenson's chapter on vocational guidance and the handicapped is another clear and useful summary. The remaining chapters usually exhort counselors to take on more crosses



and jobs, although they have too much to accomplish now.

As a part-time practitioner, I found better in the book that is helpful. Although I have only a casual interest in the developmental point of view, John Crites' AMEC talk (available from that association's journal) provides a more succinct and intelligible summary of the developmental perspective for vocational guidance. It is also free. Earlier monographs, books, or journal articles by Super, Jordaan, Crites, Gribbons and Johnes, Clarke and others, Krumboltz and Thoresen, Lofquist and Dawis usually provide equally literate and comprehensive reports.

As an almost full-time researcher and a part-time teacher, I found the theoretical and scholarly values of this volume disappointing. Too many chapters lack scientific taste. Too many authors fail to integrate and illuminate our world.—John L. Holland, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland

**The Counselor-in-Training** by Susan K. Gilmore  
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1973. 314 pp. \$7.95.

A book entitled *The Counselor-in-Training* is certainly a welcome addition to the counseling literature. One looks forward to the book's specifications of the supervisory process and the phases of development a counselor-in-training experiences. One hopes that the book will give students a general guide as to what to expect in their training, especially in the practicum, and will give practicum instructors a systematic view of the practicum training process. I had a very great anticipation that I tackled the task of reviewing this book. Unfortunately, I must report being disappointed.

The book is organized in four sections. The first three deal with theoretical aspects of counseling, the fourth deals with a description of the practicum. The latter part is sketchy, however, and comprises the concluding portion of the book. It would have been helpful had this section been enlarged and dealt with in greater detail. It consists of an overview of the practicum, an overview of practicum sessions, a description of practicum assignments, and a brief account of 11 practicum sessions, with vignettes. Apparently, Susan Gilmore believes in a small group approach to practicum supervision, one that combines didactic content with specific experiences designed for the developmental and experiential

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on the part of the counselor and the improvement of the counselor's skills in communicating with peers as well as counselees.

Apart from the didactic content, the practicum sessions described in this text take on the flavor of structured, existential encounter experiences. Less than 40 pages devoted to this type of activity is hardly enough to give the reader a clear picture of what practicum is all about, although the author promises "hard research data" in future volumes. One does get a feeling for Susan Gilmore's sincerity and a feeling that her students like her indeed.

The first three sections of the book are theoretical and are apparently meant to be the basis for the didactic content of the practicum lessons.

Susan Gilmore attempts to achieve large integrations and syntheses. Unhappily, what we read is a mixture of homespun philosophy and existential thoughts, with occasional attempts to put all of it in a systems framework. The results are superficial and banal.—Arnold Buchheimer, *Baruch College, CUNY*.

**MUST: Manual for Users of Standardized Tests** by Jonell H. Kirby, William H. Culp, and Joe Kirby. Bensenville, Illinois: Scholastic Testing Service, Inc., 1973. 180 pp. \$5.95.

The authors have attempted to present, in very simplified form, basic principles usually associated with the use of standardized group tests. Even rudiments are presented both verbally and graphically. Statements in the introduction indicate that the book is directed primarily to people in school settings.

Any teacher, counselor, or principal surely would have been exposed to the bulk of the material presented in this book. Any tests and measurements course would have contained all of the concepts presented. This handbook might be useful as an aid with students, or with parents not familiar with measurement terms, concepts, and procedures; but with many standardized instruments used in schools, the interpretive materials are so well done that supplemental sources often aren't needed.

Section three of the book, the briefest of the three, is devoted to ethical standards and issues. The book would have been much stronger had the authors given more attention to this topic and less to measurement discussion, already so widely available.

Two of the appendixes are illustrated

typescripts of test interpretations. More space devoted to this sort of material would have been an improvement. Emphasis on client involvement is laudable.

In a brief book, examples probably must be kept short and must involve numbers that aren't very realistic. Were an unsuspecting person to attempt using this book as a guide to develop, for example, a frequency distribution for a school, the actual amount of work required would be very much more than might be inferred from a study of the examples.

Some relatively minor points detracted from the book. For example, the denominator in the deviation score standard deviation is given as  $N$  rather than  $N - 1$ . In the bibliography, a book in the same genre now in its second edition is cited as a 10-year-old first edition. The authors chose to describe the middle 68 percent of scores as being in the average range. They also state, "Binet used the IQ as a shorthand method. . . ." Bibliography citations number only 15.

Some people may find use for this manual as an aid. Perhaps some instructors would choose it as a supplemental handbook. I doubt that many other people would find it as useful as other materials already available.—Arden White, *University of Wyoming, Laramie*.

**Personal and Vocational Interplay in Identity Building** by Jeannette G. Friend. Boston: Branden Press, 1973. 234 pp. \$7.95.

This book presents an interesting discussion of the personal and vocational factors in identity building in girls, utilizing Erickson's eight stages of ego development. The theme of the book is executed by presenting four case histories of females at critical periods of preadolescence, middle adolescence, young adulthood, and the generative stages of growth. The author's work is based on longitudinal data of a sample of 40 females, 10 in each of these four growth stages. The author examines the general characteristics of females at these stages, giving particular attention to their work identities, their sense of "me-ness," and their attitudes toward self that pervade their occupational choice.

In recommending this book to counselors, I am of two minds. On one hand, this book presents an interesting discussion of the complexity of factors, particularly ego development, that forge a female's personal and



vocational identity. At present there is very little enlightened discussion on this topic in the literature. On the other hand, I have some reservations about this book in that I do not agree with Erickson's model of womanhood, in which a female's psychosocial development is based on biological determinants.

In accordance with this model, the author portrays females as individuals seeking identity through marriage rather than a career. Perhaps this is due to the fact that most of the case histories were representative of middle-class females in the 1960s. However, this does not seem to be the major cause, since the author's portrait of a young woman with a "pioneer" identity does not meet with the common definition of a pioneer woman as one who establishes her identity independent of her husband's identity.

In terms of helping a counselor predict female career direction, this book does not give an answer. Most of the material is historical and tends to explain the interactions of the dynamics of behavior rather than drawing predictive criteria.

In the last two chapters, devoted to the women's movement, the author takes issue with the movement. To a large extent she perceives that "women libbers" are atypical females who may be maladjusted, since they most likely have never reached any satisfactory resolution of their early childhood experiences. Furthermore, she suggests that many of these women have "problems," since they may be "oversensitive to discrimination" because of a low "threshold for deprivation." True, some of the more ardent "women libbers" may be psychologically disturbed, but the main point here is that the women's movement has influenced society at large to perceive that women *can* have a primary identity outside the home. The author does not directly speak to this point. For these reasons, I feel that this book does not address some of the crucial contemporary issues in counseling women.—*Mary Alice Julius Guttman, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.*

**Human Relations Development: A Manual for Educators** by George M. Gazda, Frank R. Asbury, Fred J. Balzer, William C. Childers, R. Eric Desselle, and Richard P. Walters. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973. 195 pp. \$4.95. Order from Allyn and Bacon's College Order Department, Rockleigh, New Jersey 07647.

This volume is a manual, not a book. It is a collection of materials, exercises, and lectures, which I take to have been used by this group of authors in workshops with teachers. There are two introductory chapters, one justifying human relations training for teachers and the second explaining the "Carkhuff model," on which the training relies. The remainder of the material is a supplement to a training experience engineered by those who have access to an accompanying instructor's guide and who, according to the senior author, should themselves have training in the model.

There are two kinds of persons who will find the manual useful. First, those who believe a strategy for human relations skill development can be considered independent of the personal change resistance of the trainee and the confounding nature of the social system in which the skill is employed will find the "Carkhuff model" attractive. This manual will be useful to such initiates who train teachers, as it is an orthodox adaptation of the model to the educational setting. Their trainees will find this material talking to them more directly than the Carkhuff literature, though they may wonder why it has to be written in the style of a research journal.

Second, there are those who are curious about how the model has been adapted because they are considering using it or because they want to adapt it to their own uses. Those considering using the model will find enough material here for it to qualify as a sample. Those interested in adapting it to their own ends will find it useful to "raid" for ideas.

One annoying aspect of the book is the implication in the subtitle and in the preface that the model is applicable to educators generally, including such diverse roles as administrator, teacher aide, and special educator. No mention is made of whether or how differing role expectations affect human relations skill delivery. The research on which the adaptation is based is concerned only with the human relations skills of teachers. If the authors believe that human relations skills are not shaped by the roles people take, it would be helpful for them to support this belief with evidence. If they do not believe that, it behooves them to change the title or give the user some help in the text in moving from one role to another.—*Stanley J. Gross, Indiana State University, Terre Haute.*

# Activities of the Association

**Purpose.** The American Personnel and Guidance Association is a nonprofit scientific and educational organization established in 1952 to serve its members and the public through programs designed to advance the broad educational aspects of guidance, counseling, and student personnel work.

**Programs.** The APGA program is designed to promote and stimulate exchange of professional experience and knowledge through regional, state, and local meetings; through professional journals, monographs, and other publications on topics significant to the field; and through a national convention.

**Membership.** The Association's membership includes over 34,000 people with bachelor's degrees or advanced degrees in guidance, counseling, and student personnel work. Members are active in many professional settings, including every educational level from kindergarten through graduate school, adult education, community agencies, government, business, and industry.

**Divisions.** APGA is composed of 11 divisions that represent special interests within the profession. They are:

1. American College Personnel Association (ACPA)
2. Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES)
3. National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA)
4. Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education (SPATE)
5. American School Counselor Association (ASCA)
6. American Rehabilitation Counseling Association (ARCA)
7. Association for Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance (AMEG)
8. National Employment Counselors Association (NECA)
9. Association for Non-White Concerns in Personnel and Guidance (ANWC)
10. National Catholic Guidance Conference (NCGC)
11. Association for Specialists in Group Work (ASGW)

**Branches.** APGA's program is carried on at state and local levels through 52 state branches as well as through local chapters and state divisions of the national divisions.

**Committees.** APGA national committees and commissions, such as those on Human Rights, Federal Relations, Ethical Practices, Women, Older Americans, and International Education, reflect the Association's goals and help to implement its programs.

**Professional Information Services.** The Association provides members with publications designed to serve their needs, stimulate their interests, and help increase their understanding of the theory, philosophy, and practice that form the basis of today's guidance and counseling work.

The 12 journals published by APGA and its divisions are:

*The Personnel and Guidance Journal*  
*Journal of College Student Personnel*  
*Counselor Education and Supervision*  
*The Vocational Guidance Quarterly*  
*Journal of the Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education*  
*The School Counselor*  
*Elementary School Guidance and Counseling*  
*Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin*  
*Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance*  
*Journal of Employment Counseling*  
*Journal of Non-White Concerns in Personnel and Guidance*  
*Counseling and Values*

Also published biweekly is the *Guidepost*, the official newspaper of APGA.

Other services APGA provides are the production and sale of single publications; the sale of films, reprints, and tape recordings; and the resources of a reference library.

**Conventions.** The 1975 APGA Convention will be held March 23-26 in New York City.

**Headquarters.** APGA Headquarters is located at 1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Telephone: (202) 483-4633.



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- 1959** The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. 1321 pages; \$35.00.
- 1953** The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Reprinted 1974; 1188 pages; \$30 00
- 1949** The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook. Reprinted 1974; 1062 pages; \$25 00
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# Guidelines for Authors

The *Personnel and Guidance Journal* invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) current professional and scientific issues, (b) new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners.

All material should aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners. For a detailed description of stylistic and other requirements, authors are referred to Judy Wall's article, "Getting into Print in P&G: How It's Done," in the May 1974 issue of P&G. Following are guidelines for submitting a manuscript.

## REQUIREMENTS

1. Send the *original* and two *clear* copies. Original should be typed on 8½ x 11 nontranslucent white bond.
2. Double-space *everything*, including references, quotations, tables, and figures. Leave *extra* space above and below subheads.
3. Leave generous margins (at least an inch all around) on each page.
4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.
5. Place references, each table, and each figure on pages separate from the text.
6. Place authors' names, positions, titles, places of employment, and mailing addresses on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.
7. For arrangement and form of references, subheads, tables, etc., see a recent issue of P&G. Also, please note that we do not use the generic male pronoun or other sexist terminology. (A valuable resource for authors, particularly in regard to references, is the publication manual of the American Psychological Association. Ordering information can be obtained from APA, 1200 17th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.)
8. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.
9. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

*Note:* Authors bear full responsibility for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures. These should be complete and correct in manuscript to avoid the cost of making changes on the galley proofs, as these costs may be charged to the author.

## TYPES OF ARTICLES

1. *Full-length articles.* Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of double-spaced typewritten copy *including* references, tables, and figures). Include a capsule statement of not more than 100 words with each copy of the manuscript; this statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should appear on a page separate from the text. Article titles should not exceed 50 letters and spaces.
2. *In the Field articles.* Manuscripts should not exceed 2,000 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, or techniques.
3. *Dialogues.* Dialogues should follow the length requirements of full-length articles. They should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted for publication.
4. *Poems.* Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors.
5. *Feedback.* Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged on receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Generally, two to three months elapse between acknowledgement of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition. On publication, each author (the senior author in case of multiple authorship) will receive 10 copies of the journal. Poetry contributors will receive 5 copies of the journal.



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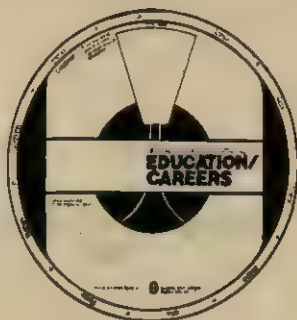
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volume 53

number 2

october 1974

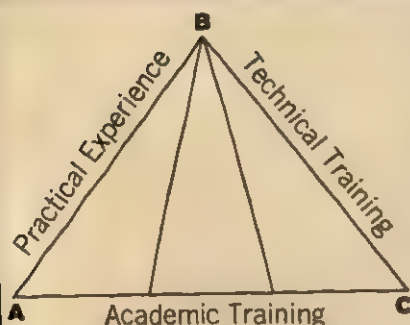
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**Counselors  
in Corrections**



## Statements

1. The Air Force provides the finest training available.
2. The Air Force is synonymous with educational opportunity.
3. The Air Force encourages its enlisted personnel to earn college degrees.
4. Air Force pay is competitive, the benefits outstanding.
5. Air Force men and women's chances for in-service and post-service success are limited only by their initiative.

## Given:

The Air Force offers a total career education program which combines technical and academic training with practical experience.

## To prove:

The Air Force provides high school graduates with the background needed for success.

## Reasons

1. Given: Most of the over 250 Air Force jobs require formal training at the seven major Air Force vocational schools, schools which are accredited by either the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools or the North Central Accrediting Association.
2. Given: All airmen are encouraged to take off-duty courses at any of the 700 colleges and universities located on or near Air Force bases, with the Air Force paying up to 75% of their tuition expenses.
3. Through the new Community College of the Air Force (CCAF), airmen are given the opportunity to earn the equivalent of an Associate in Technology Degree by combining their formal training with job-relevant off-duty education in any one of over 80 CCAF curriculum majors.
4. A new enlistee will start off at \$326 a month, plus room and board and substantial shopping/insurance/recreation savings.
5. The combination of practical know-how and both academic and technical training provides the basis for rapid advancement in the Air Force, and the basis for life-long accomplishment in civilian life.

Granted, life is not as simple as a geometric proof. However, we believe that the total career education program that the Air Force offers can give many high school graduates superior chances for long-term success in today's technically-oriented society. Those who remain in the Air Force will have been trained for advancement and responsibility. Those who depart for civilian life will have a background conducive to achieving an economically secure future.

If you are not already familiar with the dimensions of the Air Force educational programs, we would like to make this information available to you. We think you'll be pleasantly surprised and impressed by both the variety and scope of what we have to offer. Simply write: Air Force Educational Affairs, Box A, Randolph AFB, TX 78148. Or request the material from your local Air Force Recruiter.

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**Manuscripts:** Submit manuscripts to the Editor according to the guidelines that appear in every issue of the JOURNAL.

**Subscriptions:** Available to nonmembers at \$20 per year. Manager, APGA.

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**Reprints:** Available in lots of 50 from Publications Sales, APGA. **Back issues:** \$2.00 per single copy for current volume and four volumes immediately preceding from Publications Sales, APGA. **Single issues of earlier volumes:** Available from Walter J. Johnson, Inc., 111 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10003. **Bound volumes:** Available from Publications Sales, APGA. **Microfilm:** University Microfilms, Inc., 313 North First Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48107.

**Indexing:** The JOURNAL's annual index is published in the June issue. The JOURNAL is listed in *Education Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *College Student Personnel Abstracts*, *Sociology of Education Abstracts*, *Personnel Literature*, *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, *Mental Health Book Review Index*, *Poverty and Human Resources*, *Exceptional Child Education Abstracts*, and *Employment Relations Abstracts*. Book reviews are indexed in *Book Review Index*.

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Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered, U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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Volume 53, Number 2, October 1974

## ARTICLES

|                                                                                                                  |     |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Career Development of Youth: A Nationwide Study<br><i>Dale J. Prediger, John D. Roth, Richard J. Noeth</i> ..... | 97  |
| Housewife, Mother, Other: Needs and Helpers<br><i>Judith K. Katz, Nancy H. Knapp</i> .....                       | 105 |
| Mental Imagery in Counseling<br><i>Gary F. Kelly</i> .....                                                       | 111 |
| Assertive Training in Groups<br><i>David L. Sansbury</i> .....                                                   | 117 |
| Lay Psychology Books as an Aid to Counseling<br><i>Donald R. Atkinson</i> .....                                  | 123 |

## POEMS

|                                                  |     |
|--------------------------------------------------|-----|
| To My Young Sisters                              |     |
| Beginning Their Journey<br><i>Linda M. Horne</i> | 104 |
| Portraits<br><i>Samuel T. Gladding</i>           | 110 |

## DEPARTMENTS

|                        |     |
|------------------------|-----|
| Feedback               | 90  |
| Editorial              | 96  |
| Etcetera               | 169 |
| Book Reviews           | 171 |
| Guidelines for Authors | 180 |

## Special Feature: Counselors in Corrections

Guest Editors: Norma B. Gluckstern and Larry L. Dye

- 127 Introducing This Special Feature  
Leo Goldman
- 128 Counselors in Corrections: Surveying the Scene  
Larry L. Dye, Norma B. Gluckstern
- 130 Toward a New Era in Corrections  
Larry L. Dye, James P. SanSouci

### Programs for Offenders, Roles for Counselors

- 137 Adapting Systems to People  
Allen E. Ivey
- 140 Diversion as an Alternative to Incarceration  
Kenne Jasmund
- 142 Juvenile Corrections: It Starts Here  
Walter N. Rist, Ernest Rens
- 146 Inmates Go to College  
Ray A. Allen
- 150 Inservice Training in the University  
Thomas C. Neil, Benson Hecker
- 153 The Model Program at Berkshire  
Norma B. Gluckstern, Kate Wenner
- 163 Personal Commitment: Challenge for Change  
Stanley L. Brodsky
  
- 166 Correctional Literature and Other Resources  
Janice M. Gamache

Cover photo and photos in this issue by James P. SanSouci



# Feedback

Letters for Feedback should be under 300 words. Those selected for publication may be edited or abridged by the Journal staff.

## One Peripatetic Counselor to Another

Jean Parry, in the May 1974 issue of the *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL*, says that she "exposes and reveals herself" to the students of St. Luke's Methodist Hospital School of Nursing in Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

In September of 1966 I became the counselor for all 1,200 employees and the school of nursing of Mount Sinai Medical Center, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. After serving a couple of years in this unique position, I wrote a brief article that was published in *Modern Hospitals* in August 1969. I too found no resource materials available and was eager for responses from the myriad readers of such an international publication. Hundreds of letters and phone calls exposed an interest of administrators and directors throughout the country, Canada, and three or four other foreign countries—each requesting information as to how to initiate such a program. None had a program.

Since no precedent had been set, it was a challenge to invest in self and energy to make the guidance and counseling department an available and used service to all on the staff. By way of my comments at department head meetings, in the hospital newsletter, and in constant walking rounds throughout the complex, the counselor quickly became known to all. Once the confidentiality of sessions was realized, counseling took place with anyone in need, anytime, and anywhere: locker rooms, lounges, corridors, treatment rooms, cafeteria, others' offices, outside on a step, or the counselor's comfortable office. Rarely does the counselor make follow-up rounds without some employee or student stopping her to request an appointment or to seek information. Sessions are requested—and held—before, during, or after tour of

duty, lunch periods, coffee breaks, and days off.

Congrats, Ms. Parry, you seem to be on the gratifying track of helping. May you have a long and productive life at St. Luke's! Our school of nursing now lies in demise since May of 1973.

LUCILE COHN  
Milwaukee, Wisconsin

## Reviewed the Wrong Book?

A classic error in reviewing is made in Bergland's review of Bingham's little book *The Counselor and Youth Employment* (May 1974 P&G, p. 631). Instead of discussing how well the author did what he set out to do, he criticizes the author for not writing the book that he, the reviewer, would have written.

Bingham wrote on "youth employment"; Bergland would have him write on "total life style," on the elementary grades, etc. Bingham dealt with vocational maturity and self-concept implementation in relation to employment, with women, and with the disabled, briefly considering all clearly relevant topics in his 89-page survey. Bergland would have him "concentrate on one topic" (total life style, perhaps?).

Perceptive readers of reviews see internal contradiction and bias such as the above and discount such reviews. Could the editor not save them the trouble?

DONALD E. SUPER  
Teachers College, Columbia University  
New York, N.Y.

## Too Much Printed about Too Little

Your editorial in the April 1974 issue pertaining to hiring professional writers is sound thinking. My experience with APGA for the



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past 18 years indicates that too much has been printed about too little, with a continual barrage of paper which is expensive to print and mail. A quarterly publication with quality and content would make more sense than all the newsletters and other publications.

FRANCIS S. DREGA  
State Department of Education  
Hartford, Connecticut

#### A Poem to the Editor

I think that I shall never see  
A journal as undernourished as thee;  
A journal whose hungry mouth is pressed  
Against the concept of mental incest;  
A journal who numbers do abhor,  
Assumes its readers cannot count to four.

Oh, please spare us the rest of this verse,  
But wait, the rest of the journal is worse!  
Except for the stuff I publish, of course.

WILLIAM E. SEDLACEK  
University of Maryland—College Park  
Chairperson, Journals Anonymous

#### Counseling and the Military

Recent ads in educational periodicals and the big show at New Orleans indicate clearly that the military in the U.S.A. is making a big and expensive attempt to get more control over the schools—and especially counseling.

An increasing number of informed persons are becoming very fearful that the powerful world military will soon kill everyone on earth. Many youth are feeling this also. This makes the counselor's job difficult and raises the difficult question as to what the counselor should do.

Obviously, he must become acquainted with military plans as they relate to youth, and especially to 18-year-olds. On the other hand, it is extremely important that the counselor become fully informed and competent in dealing with facts, activities, and careers that will help lead to world peace. He must become at least as fully informed about the peace movement and people—especially in his own community—as he is about the military. His files and shelves must have plenty that relates to peace, cooperation, and world order.

There are three especially important books which the counselor must have if he is to be adequately informed and to help students who want to get rid of war.

1. Ralph White's *Nobody Wanted War* gives an excellent explanation of war, saying that each side wants and thinks exactly the same things: We are right and they are wrong; they plan to destroy us and all we want is to protect ourselves; they love war and want to conquer the world and we merely want peace.

2. York's *Race to Oblivion* is written by a very competent atomic scientist and Department of Defense official.

3. The APGA Peace Commission's *Activities and Careers for a New Age* was written by counselors for counselors to tell how students can plan to help build a more peaceful world. It is available from APGA for \$2.00. *Every counselor should have a copy.*

DWIGHT L. ARNOLD  
Kent State University  
Kent, Ohio

#### International Students at APGA Convention

Each year the Department of State, through the Institute of International Education (IIE), awards a "Convention" grant to APGA. This grant is used to subsidize international students who wish to attend APGA's annual convention and who are not sponsored by the U.S. government.

Fourteen international students representing twelve countries and eight universities attended the New Orleans Convention in April 1974. All of the students were asked to write a summary of their experiences and submit them to APGA to be included in the report to IIE. Most of them wrote something similar to this, written by a Vietnamese student who is studying at the University of Houston: "The Convention program was really excellent. I couldn't imagine that many talks happening at one time. I was frustrated to decide which one I would choose to go to each hour. They all appeared to be interesting and helpful for my study. Anyway, I made up my mind and enjoyed the sessions that seemed to be most appropriate and valuable to me. But then, when I heard friends talking about other sessions they attended, I wished I could be at two sessions at one time."

The students were very excited about the exhibits and the film festival. Many felt that the updated materials and resources presented in the exhibits were worthy enough themselves to justify convention attendance. Then, there were others who could have

# People Careers



**PERSONNEL & INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COLLEGES** is the first directory available designed specifically to aid the student seeking a career in human resource management. The

Directory includes complete information on programs, faculties and courses offered by universities and colleges in both the United States and Canada. In preparing this comprehensive new work, the editors surveyed all degree-granting institutions with enrollments of 1000 or more to obtain facts on nearly 200 schools

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PGJ 2



armed themselves with pen, pad, popcorn, and "pop" and spent three days at the film festival.

Mr. Mousa Karayanni of Israel said, "My attendance at the Convention gave me the opportunity to know people. This increases my experiences and enhances my understanding of human life . . . a thing which I believe is the core of our profession as counselors."

Hopefully, as Dr. Robert Carkhuff emphasized in his convention keynote address, this is the core that can help us "bring people power to bear, and develop a systematic, step-by-step human technology to achieve our human values and meet our human needs," thereby fulfilling "the dreams of our ancestors."

International students qualified in the counseling and guidance field who are interested in attending the 1975 New York Convention may be able to apply for partial grants directly from one of the following organizations. (All students, following study in the U.S., must return to their home countries to practice their profession.)

*Graduate students and scholars from Asia only:*

Mr. Robert S. Schwantes  
Vice President for Programs  
Asia Foundation  
550 Kearney Street  
San Francisco, California 94119

*Graduate students sponsored by U.S. government grants:*

Mrs. Joan Kertis  
Institute of International Education  
Division of Special Courses  
809 United Nations Plaza  
New York, New York 10017

*Graduate students not sponsored by the U.S. government:*

Mr. Paul L. Collins  
Executive Assistant  
American Personnel and Guidance  
Association  
1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20009

ETHEL BRADFORD  
APGA Executive Assistant  
Washington, D.C.

# A Smorgasbord of Career Counseling Resources

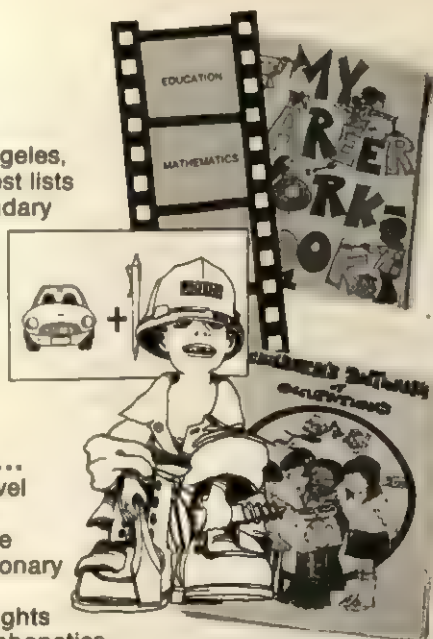
Career Futures, Inc. and Counselor Films, Inc., Philadelphia and Los Angeles, now have one of the finest lists of elementary and secondary resources ever put together under "one roof". From self awareness to career awareness, we touch your students' lives in several ways. For instance:

**CAREER FLASHCARDS...** a series of elementary level flashcards that integrate career awareness into the process of teaching dictionary and perception skills. Students gain career insights through perception and phonetics.

**I WISH I WERE...** a sensitive look into young children's fantasies about the world of work coupled with the reality of the careers they fantasize about. This is a four film series (8-10 minutes) in self awareness.

**WHEN YOU GROW UP...** 15 award winning elementary films on career awareness produced by Mini Productions and distributed by Counselor Films. Each film is beautifully scored and highly motivating. You and your students will be truly moved.

**EDUCATION: WHO NEEDS IT?**... eight filmstrips written by Jeff Moss (four years head writer of Sesame Street) to relate each ele-



mentary curriculum area (math, science, reading, etc.) to careers where these areas are important. Don't miss seeing (and hearing) these.

**MY CAREER WORKBOOK**... a delightful and refreshing way to incorporate career awareness into the elementary classroom. Each book contains career oriented tasks such as a career maze, connect-the-dots, career alphabet and career coloring.

## THE CHILDREN'S DICTIONARY OF

**OCCUPATIONS...** a brand-new and highly innovative (and illustrated) reference book of careers for elementary school students. This resource is ideal for work with small groups as well as individuals.

**THE LIBRARY OF CAREER COUNSELING FILMS...** the highly acclaimed series of 40 secondary career films is now available in filmstrips (cassette or record). The films are being used in all 50 states and the filmstrips will be equally as popular.

For information, catalogues, or purchase of any of the above career resources, write or call (collect):

**COUNSELOR FILMS, INC. CFI CAREER FUTURES, INC.**  
2100 Locust Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19103  
(215) 732-9191

# Editorial

## OH, NO, NOT ANOTHER TERM PAPER!

Like so many kinds of enterprises, the publication business (or "pub biz" as we on the inside call it) has its seasons. One of the seasonal trends for journals has to do with term papers. Soon after the end of the semester at graduate schools, we at P&G receive, as submissions for publication, a small flurry of what appear to be term papers.

Occasionally the author of one of them mentions in the cover letter that the instructor of the course liked the paper well enough to suggest that it be submitted to a journal.

In fact, a couple of years ago we had a minor deluge of what appeared to be term papers that all emanated from one locality. Sure enough, one of the authors "leaked": The professor had suggested that all the students in the course send their papers to a journal for the "experience" of having an article reviewed. I had a few moments of panic as I visualized what could happen if a few dozen professors got such a wacky idea all at the same time—we would have to hire an additional secretary, add members to the Editorial Board, increase the stationery and mailing budget, and try to get a reduced teaching load for the editor.

Fun aside, what's wrong with term papers as potential articles? Mainly one thing: They are almost always written from the point of view of the consumer rather than the producer. What I mean is that the term paper is written by someone who is learning about a topic; the task is usually to find out what other people have said about that topic and to put it together in a way that shows that the student understands the material and perhaps can go on to see how it applies to his or her professional role and development.

A published article, on the other hand, is supposed to contribute to the *reader*. It may do this in different ways—by offering a new idea or a fresh slant on an old one, by providing new information, by describing a new kind of program or technique, and so forth. But note, please, that there is an element of originality in each of those contributions. And keep in mind too that we reach a national audience of 40,000 who work in many kinds of settings and that therefore the ideas or practices or information transmitted via P&G should, if possible, have rather widespread meaning and value.

None of this is meant to suggest that the writing of graduate students is unwelcome in P&G. Nothing could be further from the truth. In fact, during the past few years we have published a number of articles authored by graduate students. Some of those articles might even have started out as term papers, but by the time they became acceptable manuscripts, they were original contributions. The consumers had become producers. ■ LG



# career development of youth: a nationwide study

DALE J. PREDIGER

JOHN D. ROTH

RICHARD J. NOETH

*The primary objective of the study described here was to assess and summarize core aspects of the career development of American youth. A nationally representative sample of approximately 32,000 8th, 9th, and 11th graders in 200 schools participated in the study in the spring of 1973. This article focuses on the study's more salient findings and presents results in terms of what students say, do, and know about career development. A major finding is the sharp contrast between students' need for help with career planning and the help they have been receiving. In general, results support the current emphasis on career guidance and career education.*

Dale J. Prediger is Director, Developmental Research Department, John D. Roth Research Psychologist, and Richard J. Noeth Research Psychologist, all with the American College Testing Program, Iowa City. The assistance of Bert Westbrook, Associate Professor of Psychology, North Carolina State University, in the development of the instruments used in this study is gratefully acknowledged. Jane Bergsten and David Bayless, sampling statisticians at Research Triangle Institute, provided invaluable help with sample design, selection, and weighting. The complete research report from which this article excerpts and summarizes several sections is available from the authors.

Career education and career guidance are currently high-priority items on the national agenda. Many believe student career development to be the unifying theme and primary goal of career education efforts. It was in the context of this national interest and the new developments in career education and career guidance that the Nationwide Study of Student Career Development (Prediger, Roth & Noeth 1973) was conducted. The primary purpose of the study was to assess and summarize core aspects of the career development of American youth enrolled in grades 8, 9, and 11. This is a particularly crucial period in the career development of students, one in which many experiences and decisions related to the post-high-school transition occur. Information on students' preparation for these decisions is certainly desirable as a basis for determining what is being

done now and what needs to be done in the future.

The purpose of this article is to present some of the more significant findings of the study, findings that have implications for all counselors, but especially for those in school guidance programs. The article focuses primarily on what students *say* about their career development and about their current guidance needs. In addition, what students have *done* about career planning and what they *know* about career development are covered briefly.

Because the large amount of data obtained in the study precludes a complete discussion, we have attempted to identify some of the more salient findings and to draw some implications from them. Admittedly, this is a subjective process. Readers are therefore reminded that judgments concerning the implications

of the findings are the authors' and that detailed study results are available for readers who wish to draw their own conclusions after inspecting the data.

## **SAMPLE AND ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES**

The target population for the study was defined as all full-time 8th, 9th, and 11th grade students enrolled in public or Catholic schools in the United States in the spring of 1973. The sample, which consisted of approximately 32,000 students in 200 schools located in 33 states, was selected by Research Triangle Institute using sampling frame data developed for the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Stratification variables included region of country and size and socioeconomic status of community. When it was not possible to test all students, students in the specified grade within each selected school were randomly chosen. Weights were applied to sample data to insure that study results would be nationally representative. A detailed description of sampling procedures has been provided by Bayless, Bergsten, Lewis, and Noeth (1974).

Under the supervision of local school personnel, students in the sample completed the Assessment of Career Development (ACD), a 267-item paper-and-pencil inventory/test. The ACD, which was developed from detailed content specifications drawn from career development theory and guidance practice (American College Testing Program 1974), covers the following core components of career development: (a) occupational awareness, including occupational knowledge and exploratory experiences; (b) self-awareness, including career plans and perceived needs for help with career planning; and (c) career planning and decision making, including career planning knowledge and involvement in career planning activities. The ACD also elicits student reactions to career guid-

ance experiences, provides scores for 11 scales, and summarizes student responses to 42 specific questions.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### **Student-Perceived Needs for Help**

One of the most striking findings of this study is students' apparent receptivity to receiving help with career planning. As shown in Table 1, more than three-fourths of the nation's high school juniors would like such help; the proportion is almost as high for 8th graders. In both grades, more girls than boys are looking for career planning help. If recognition of the need for help with career planning is interpreted as an indicator of readiness, then American teenagers appear to be anxious to get on with career development.

Help with "making career plans" is by far the major area of need indicated by 11th graders; "finding after-school or summer work" is in second place. Far down on the list is "discussing personal concerns," the primary task for which many school counselors have been trained.

### **Reactions to School Guidance Services**

The incidence of student-expressed need for help with career planning is in sharp contrast to the amount of help students say they receive. Item 1 in Table 2 shows that only 13 percent of the 11th graders feel that they receive "a lot" of help with career planning from their school. Another 37 percent feel that they receive "some" help. However, half of the 11th graders and slightly more 8th graders state that they receive little or no help with career planning. Yet, in a separate item not shown in the table, 85 percent of the 11th graders indicate that they recognize that career planning must begin before the final year of high school. It would appear, then, that a need exists that remains for the most part unfulfilled.

TABLE 1

## Student-Perceived Needs for Help

| Area of Student Concern <sup>a</sup>                       | Grade 8         |     |        | Grade 11        |     |        |
|------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----|--------|-----------------|-----|--------|
|                                                            | "Yes" Responses |     |        | "Yes" Responses |     |        |
|                                                            | % M             | % F | % Tot. | % M             | % F | % Tot. |
| Improving study skills                                     | 74              | 72  | 73     | 68              | 61  | 65     |
| Improving reading skills                                   | 65              | 60  | 63     | 61              | 56  | 58     |
| Improving math skills                                      | 71              | 74  | 73     | 63              | 58  | 60     |
| Choosing courses                                           | 62              | 66  | 64     | 57              | 58  | 58     |
| Discussing personal concerns                               | 38              | 40  | 39     | 29              | 32  | 30     |
| Discussing health problems                                 | 31              | 26  | 29     | 17              | 13  | 15     |
| Making career plans                                        | 71              | 75  | 73     | 76              | 80  | 78     |
| Obtaining money to continue<br>education after high school | 57              | 57  | 57     | 56              | 55  | 56     |
| Finding after-school or summer<br>work                     | 72              | 73  | 73     | 64              | 70  | 67     |

<sup>a</sup>Directions to students were as follows: "The list below covers several things with which students sometimes would like help. If you would like help with any of these things, mark A for YES. Otherwise mark B for NO."

TABLE 2

## General Reactions to School Guidance Services

## Paraphrased Questions and Summary of Student Responses

1. Overall, how much help with career (educational and job) planning has your school (teachers, counselors, principal, librarian, etc.) given you?

|           | Grade 8 |     |        | Grade 11 |     |        |
|-----------|---------|-----|--------|----------|-----|--------|
|           | % M     | % F | % Tot. | % M      | % F | % Tot. |
| A. None   | 25      | 24  | 24     | 20       | 15  | 17     |
| B. Little | 31      | 30  | 31     | 33       | 32  | 32     |
| C. Some   | 33      | 34  | 33     | 36       | 39  | 37     |
| D. A lot  | 12      | 12  | 12     | 11       | 15  | 13     |

2. Do you feel you can see a guidance counselor when you want to or need to?

|                                          | Grade 8 |     |        | Grade 11 |     |        |
|------------------------------------------|---------|-----|--------|----------|-----|--------|
|                                          | % M     | % F | % Tot. | % M      | % F | % Tot. |
| A. Hardly ever                           | 17      | 14  | 16     | 13       | 14  | 13     |
| B. Usually                               | 35      | 34  | 34     | 41       | 41  | 41     |
| C. Almost always                         | 31      | 31  | 31     | 43       | 44  | 43     |
| D. We don't have a guidance<br>counselor | 17      | 20  | 19     | 4        | 2   | 3      |



One explanation for the large number of students who feel they receive little or no career planning help might be the unavailability of school counselors. However, item 2 in Table 2 shows that only 3 percent of the 11th graders do not have a guidance counselor. An overwhelming 84 percent say that they can usually or almost always see a counselor when they want to. The implication, then, is that many counselors are simply not providing help with career planning, either on a one-to-one basis or through group guidance activities. Perhaps time constraints and conflicting responsibilities are the chief cause. We believe, however, that many counselors and administrators have failed to accept and communicate career planning as an appropriate responsibility of the school and that, as a result, students do not expect or request help with career planning.

Table 3 summarizes student reactions to some of the career guidance activities commonly described in textbooks and implemented in schools. Item 1 supports the notion that many counselors—for whatever reasons—are not providing career guidance help. Over half of the 11th graders (56 percent) indicate that they receive little or no help with career planning in discussions with counselors. As would be expected, the percentage is substantially higher for 8th graders. The number of 11th graders indicating that they receive some or a lot of help from counselors (43 percent) is somewhat lower than the number indicating that they receive some help or a lot of help from their school (50 percent; see Table 2). It appears that counselors provide most, but not all, of the career planning help received by 11th graders. In the 8th grade, the relative contribution of the school as a whole is substantially higher.

For many years teachers have been urged to make their subjects relevant to the "real world." More recently, and particularly in career education programs, attention has shifted to "the world of

work." While the emphasis of these efforts is on instructional effectiveness and career awareness rather than on career planning, certainly help with the latter would be a reasonable concomitant to expect. Item 2 in Table 3 shows that about 35 percent of the 11th graders and 8th graders do indeed say that class discussions of jobs related to the subjects they are studying provide some help or a lot of help with career planning. However, a similar proportion of students indicate that help is "not provided" in class discussions of this type—possibly because a large number of teachers have yet to accept the career-relevance approach to instruction.

Items 3 and 4 in Table 3 summarize student reactions to other types of common career guidance practices. Tables 2 and 3 indicate that somewhat less than one-fifth of the 11th graders feel that they receive a lot of help with career planning through the various educational programs and guidance services offered by schools.

### Career Plans

One of the questions in the study asked students to indicate their first occupational preference and then to select, from a list of 25 job families, the job family appropriate to this preference. While several discrepancies with U.S. Department of Labor employment projections are evident in the distributions of student preferences, the most striking feature of the data is the evidence of differences in responses of the two sexes. The nature of these differences is not surprising, but their extent is quite dramatic. For example, over half of the 11th grade girls choose occupations falling in only 3 of the 25 job families: clerical and secretarial work, education and social services, nursing and human care. By contrast, 7 percent of the boys prefer occupations in these areas. Nearly half of the boys' choices fall in the technologies and trades cluster of job families, in con-

TABLE 3

## Reactions to Typical Career Guidance Activities

## Paraphrased Questions and Summary of Student Responses

General directions: "Some of the ways schools help students with career planning are listed below. For each, show how you feel about the help provided at your school."

## 1. Discussion with a counselor about education and job plans for after high school.

|                           | Grade 8 |     |        | Grade 11 |     |        |
|---------------------------|---------|-----|--------|----------|-----|--------|
|                           | % M     | % F | % Tot. | % M      | % F | % Tot. |
| A. Help not provided/used | 56      | 56  | 56     | 38       | 32  | 35     |
| B. Of little help         | 19      | 17  | 18     | 21       | 21  | 21     |
| C. Of some help           | 17      | 16  | 17     | 29       | 28  | 28     |
| D. A lot of help          | 8       | 11  | 10     | 12       | 18  | 15     |

## 2. Class discussion by teachers of jobs related to their subjects.

|                      | Grade 8 |     |        | Grade 11 |     |        |
|----------------------|---------|-----|--------|----------|-----|--------|
|                      | % M     | % F | % Tot. | % M      | % F | % Tot. |
| A. Help not provided | 38      | 40  | 39     | 37       | 34  | 35     |
| B. Of little help    | 28      | 27  | 27     | 27       | 23  | 25     |
| C. Of some help      | 24      | 23  | 24     | 27       | 28  | 27     |
| D. A lot of help     | 10      | 10  | 10     | 10       | 15  | 12     |

## 3. Films on jobs, talks by workers (in person or on tape), "career days," tours.

|                           | Grade 8 |     |        | Grade 11 |     |        |
|---------------------------|---------|-----|--------|----------|-----|--------|
|                           | % M     | % F | % Tot. | % M      | % F | % Tot. |
| A. Help not provided/used | 46      | 51  | 48     | 44       | 43  | 44     |
| B. Of little help         | 21      | 20  | 20     | 22       | 18  | 20     |
| C. Of some help           | 23      | 20  | 21     | 24       | 25  | 24     |
| D. A lot of help          | 11      | 11  | 11     | 11       | 14  | 12     |

## 4. File of job descriptions, pamphlets, or books on jobs.

|                           | Grade 8 |     |        | Grade 11 |     |        |
|---------------------------|---------|-----|--------|----------|-----|--------|
|                           | % M     | % F | % Tot. | % M      | % F | % Tot. |
| A. Help not provided/used | 46      | 48  | 47     | 38       | 30  | 34     |
| B. Of little help         | 25      | 21  | 23     | 24       | 20  | 22     |
| C. Of some help           | 21      | 22  | 21     | 30       | 37  | 33     |
| D. A lot of help          | 9       | 10  | 9      | 9        | 13  | 11     |

trast to only 7 percent of the girls' choices. Results for 8th, 9th, and 11th graders are essentially the same. It is obvious that efforts to broaden the career options and choices of both males and females must overcome the pervasive influence of work role stereotypes related to sex.

Table 4 provides evidence of the amount of thought students give to their

occupational preferences and career plans. Slight trends in favor of 11th graders appear for the first two questions but not for the third question, which taps the certainty of the students' first occupational preference. Only 13 percent of the 8th graders answer "not sure at all" to the question, whereas 22 percent of the 11th graders choose that response—a substantial proportionate increase. Perhaps,

TABLE 4

## Self-Evaluation of Career Planning

## Paraphrased Questions and Summary of Student Responses

1. Have you given much thought as to why your first two job choices are right for you?

|             | Grade 8 |     |        | Grade 11 |     |        |
|-------------|---------|-----|--------|----------|-----|--------|
|             | % M     | % F | % Tot. | % M      | % F | % Tot. |
| A. A little | 16      | 13  | 15     | 13       | 8   | 10     |
| B. Some     | 36      | 37  | 36     | 38       | 32  | 35     |
| C. A lot    | 49      | 50  | 49     | 50       | 60  | 55     |

2. Is the amount of education you are planning in line with what is needed for the jobs?

|                 | Grade 8 |     |        | Grade 11 |     |        |
|-----------------|---------|-----|--------|----------|-----|--------|
|                 | % M     | % F | % Tot. | % M      | % F | % Tot. |
| A. Yes          | 52      | 52  | 52     | 58       | 60  | 59     |
| B. Not sure     | 39      | 42  | 41     | 34       | 34  | 34     |
| C. Probably not | 9       | 6   | 7      | 7        | 6   | 7      |

3. Students often change their minds about job choices. How sure are you that your "First Job Choice" will be the same in a year?

|                    | Grade 8 |     |        | Grade 11 |     |        |
|--------------------|---------|-----|--------|----------|-----|--------|
|                    | % M     | % F | % Tot. | % M      | % F | % Tot. |
| A. Very sure       | 41      | 39  | 40     | 31       | 33  | 32     |
| B. Fairly sure     | 46      | 48  | 47     | 45       | 47  | 46     |
| C. Not sure at all | 13      | 13  | 13     | 24       | 20  | 22     |

Note.—Directions for items 1 and 2 were as follows: "A few minutes ago, you were asked to print the names of your first two job choices on the answer folder. The rest of the questions on this page all refer to these two jobs. THINK ONLY OF THESE TWO JOBS as you answer each of the following items."

with the approach of major career decisions, 11th graders take the task of career choice more seriously and begin to weigh more heavily the reality factors involved.

Whether more 11th graders should be "very sure" of their first occupational preference depends on one's views about the career development process. Certainly there is ample testimony in the professional literature and labor market projections that youth should "stay loose" occupationally and keep doors open as long as possible. However, if vocational choice is the zeroing-in process that some believe it to be (Super 1963), one might expect that students finishing the 11th grade would be "fairly sure" of their occupational preferences. This would imply that they have at least given them a lot of thought; 55 percent of the

11th graders say they have (Table 4, item 1).

### What Students Do and Know about Career Development

The following are capsule highlights of conclusions based on a large amount of additional information gathered in the study.

1. As indicated by a 32-item self-report inventory, 20 percent of the nation's 11th graders exhibit what can only be called a very low level of involvement in career planning activities. Another 50 percent barely approach a minimally desirable level. Responses to specific items indicate that a substantial number of 11th graders have had very little involvement in frequently recommended career guidance practices (e.g.,



field trips, worker interviews, role-play job interviews).

2. As indicated by six scales covering job-related activities and experiences organized by occupational cluster, the exploratory occupational experiences of most students appear to be quite limited. Although many of these experiences occur outside of the school, none require actual employment. Rather, they represent a component of career awareness that schools can do much to develop.

3. When the exploratory occupational experiences of males and females are compared, the results suggest distinct patterns related to sex roles endemic to American society. Again, schools can do much to broaden these experiences through the career awareness and career exploration programs now being developed.

4. Results obtained from a 40-item career planning knowledge scale show both a lack of knowledge and a substantial amount of misinformation. For example, 53 percent of the 11th graders believe that *more* than one-third of all job openings require a college degree; 41 percent of the 8th graders believe that *few* women work outside of the home after marriage; and 61 percent of the 11th graders believe that *most* persons remain in the same jobs throughout their adult lives.

## IMPLICATIONS

What, then, can be said about the career development of the nation's youth? First and foremost, student-expressed need for help with career planning is in sharp contrast to the amount of help students feel they receive. This discrepancy is reflected in what students have (and more often, have not) done to prepare for the difficult career decisions they face. Their lack of knowledge about the world of work and about the career planning process also testifies to their need for help. We believe that, consid-

ered together, these vantage points for viewing student career development—what students say, do, and know—provide a consistent and dismal picture. If we were speaking of physical development rather than career development, we would describe American youth as hungry, undernourished, and physically retarded.

Does this mean that 11th graders will be unable to cope with the career development tasks posed by society at the difficult high school to post-high-school transition point? Certainly youth in the past have been able to muddle through. However, we believe study results pre-*sage* unfortunate amounts of floundering and prolonged states of indecision that are costly both to the individual and to society. Perhaps society can continue to absorb these costs while it avoids the costs inherent in the remedy. This is the course of least resistance, and its acceptance may involve the least controversy, especially since the remedies currently receiving attention are largely untested. However, thoroughly researched and proven effectiveness is seldom a prerequisite for programs designed to meet demonstrated human need. If it were, most of what is provided in the name of education (both lower and higher) would be recalled for further research and development. While efforts to facilitate student career development should not proceed haphazardly, it would appear from the results of this study that current attempts to implement new approaches to career guidance and career education are amply justified.

We firmly believe that the traditional one-to-one counseling model for helping youngsters "choose their life's work" can no longer be justified. This model must be reoriented to encompass what is known about how careers develop and must be broadened to include the resources of the classroom and the community. As counselors and counselor educators come to recognize work as one

of the central experiences of men and women, as the making of a life as well as a living (Super 1957), we are hopeful that they will accept the challenge posed by the career development needs of American youth. ■

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## to my young sisters beginning their journey

She came to me with the eyes of  
a woman in rage.

"I feel such anger, it's like beating my head against the wall."

What do you say, sitting behind your desk,  
bleeding?

She leans toward me with the eyes of  
a woman in pain.

"I wanted to be treated like a person, like a human being."

What do you say, sitting behind your desk,  
screaming?

endless flow of wasted women  
twisted into shapes without selves  
straining to feel life . . .

"I know," you say with the eyes of  
all women.

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# housewife, mother, other: needs and helpers

*Throughout the country many women with school-age children are attempting to find a means of becoming active outside the home. In this article the authors describe these women and discuss the impact of the women's movement on them. They also discuss the new agencies and the counselors that have been helping these women in their quest for liberation, and they point out the challenges that counselors have the opportunity to meet.*

*Diary of a Mad Housewife*, a popular novel and film, depicts in fiction what many women today are in fact experiencing. Consider for a moment the following quote from that book. Bettina Balser is reflecting:

Women like me, after a certain number of years of Fulfilling themselves in domestic necessities, are supposed to leave the seclusion of the lair and re-enter The Greater World, where they're supposed to snap-to and get with it right away. They're supposed to go back to a job they once had and left, or never having had a job, get a job; they can join committees and do good works, they can go back to school and get a Ph.D., they can open an art gallery or an antique store or a bookstore or jazzy boutique, they can even just become high-powered social types and run charity balls and give endless parties—it doesn't matter what, as long as it's Action. Which of course is the reverse of this paralysis I'm in. And as soon as I can pull myself out of it, snap out of it and snap-to, start getting with it, things will fall into line and get better, maybe better than they've ever been. (Kaufman 1968, p. 73)

Utterances similar to this have undoubtedly been heard by counselors whose work involves them with well-educated, moderately affluent housewife-mothers. Throughout the country many women with school-age children are attempting to find a means of becoming active outside the home. In this article we describe these women, the impact of the women's movement on them, and some of the new agencies that have arisen to help these women in their quest for liberation.

## WOMEN AND THE WOMEN'S MOVEMENT

The women's movement has touched all social levels and age groups; no longer is it exclusively the property of the youthful intellectual or the feminist revolutionary. The goals of equality, human



freedom, and self-realization are now being espoused by a long-silent minority: the middle-class housewife. Precisely what are they like, these new activists?

Like Bettina, they are young. The majority are between the ages of thirty and forty-five. They are well educated and economically comfortable. They have been dutiful wives and mothers, gourmet cooks, gracious hostesses, meticulous housekeepers, community volunteers; they have been members of PTA groups, church groups, and the League of Women Voters; they have seen therapists, taken craft courses, gone to exercise and weight control clinics, and driven car pools. In other words, they have accepted and attempted to fulfill society's role expectation of them as dutiful woman, wife, and mother.

Recently the Bettinas of our society report that they have been experiencing an inner push to explore their own potentials, use their intelligence, and expand their horizons. They deny rather strongly that they are influenced by a desire to keep up with husbands, children, or friends or by a desire to meet the expectations of others. The majority hope to attain personal fulfillment by entering paid employment, preferably of a "meaningful" nature.

It can be disturbing, however, to consider new options—to ask oneself, "What do I want to do?" As Bailyn (1964) has pointed out, the freedom to choose among "disparate life roles introduces basic contradictions in self-image" (p. 241). To return to work is contrary to the womanly roles most valued in our culture, those of being able to run a home efficiently, have a happy family life, and rear well-behaved, intellectually curious, and creative children.

Thus we find many housewives today suffering from confusion and mild depression, conflict in the family and maternal role, and an undermining of self-confidence (Letchworth 1970; Manis & Mochizuki 1972; Weissman et

al. 1973). Such feelings are not easily handled. With whom can they be shared? Husbands may not be supportive; they may, in fact, be threatened by the perceived changes in their partners. Neighbors, friends, parents, and in-laws are often sympathetic, but their "help" may take the form of encouraging the woman to reconsider and adjust more comfortably to her customary traditional roles.

Psychotherapy may be suggested. But as Chesler (1970, 1972), Bart (1971), Weisstein (1971), and others have indicated, psychotherapists—usually male—are prone to accept society's view of woman's role. Thus, in the interest of maintaining the status quo, they will consider the goal of successful therapy for such women to be the women's acceptance of socially prearranged and traditionally dictated roles. Besides, many of these women, again like Bettina, have already seen therapists who helped them to strive for and achieve the role of wife and mother that they now fill.

Consciousness-raising groups, while probably better able than psychotherapists to assist these women, are often viewed suspiciously as being too radical, political, and disruptive. The evolving housewife wants help in sorting her options, in ordering her priorities and setting goals. She wants guidance in attaining those goals, support in bolstering her self-confidence, and above all else advice on how to successfully *combine* family and career or school. She seeks viable role models, women whom she respects and with whom she can identify, women who have successfully juggled several roles and have met and coped with diverse responsibilities.

## THE AGENCIES

The conflicts produced by the rapidly changing roles of women have led to the establishment of a variety of new kinds of agencies across the country. They have been organized by women who for the

most part have themselves recognized and experienced such conflicts and, in turn, have been highly motivated to attempt to help other women. Significantly, these services are not necessarily identified with university counseling centers or other established helping agencies. Indeed, as Fitzgerald (1973) has pointed out, the kind of client we are talking about often feels that "most counselors and tests aren't really relevant to my needs" (p. 91). Such agencies as the newly formed community women's centers and such programs as continuing education for women have therefore sprung up. They have a variety of names and offer one or more services, including group and individual counseling, vocational testing, resume writing and interview role playing, job leads and job placement, life style and career planning, and continuing education opportunities. Some charge considerable fees; others are free. While many have a psychologist on the staff, or at least a professional consultant who supervises counseling activities, others are providing these services without such supervision.

Catalyst, a nonprofit organization based in New York (6 East 82nd St., New York 10028), has for the past twelve years been attempting to help educated women combine career and education with family responsibilities. This organization has recently launched a comprehensive program to become the national clearinghouse for local agencies involved in counseling and placement activities. To date it has 103 affiliated local agencies throughout the country, which are providing personal life style and career counseling as well as job placement and educational programs for women. These 103 agencies, which have already served 70,000 women, are only those that have chosen to join Catalyst's network. There are probably an equal number that have chosen not to affiliate. One might reasonably estimate, then, that more than 100,000 women

throughout the country have sought help from such agencies.

One example of an independent agency is Resources for Women, a project of the faculty wives and women staff members at the University of Pennsylvania. It offers free counseling service to members of the university and the surrounding Philadelphia community, with emphasis on the problems of women returning to work or school. It is staffed by faculty wives working in conjunction with doctoral candidates in the counseling psychology program of the university's graduate school of education. Local specialists in career development, job-seeking techniques, continuing education, and other areas of concern to clients volunteer their services as consultants to the groups. Supervision of the counseling program is provided by professionals on the university faculty.

Women who seek help from Resources for Women and similar organizations view the staff and clients of these agencies as people who will understand, who will be sympathetic and supportive, and who have experienced feelings similar to their own. Group counseling usually affords these women the opportunity to share their anxieties and to see that there are others like themselves. It is this service that is often most valuable to counselees. There is a great deal of support in knowing that one is not alone in a quest to depart from a traditional role. Together group members work on present and future solutions to the problem of combining family with an outside commitment.

Within the group the members are able—together and individually—to analyze and assess their experiences, goals, interests, abilities, options, motivations, and commitments. They are able to discuss such basic practical questions as schedules, costs, benefits, and drawbacks of outside commitments. They learn ways of dealing with family and friends. And, most important, they learn



to order priorities. They learn to abstract the essentials from their traditional family role and to ignore or allocate to others many other responsibilities. Each woman is helped so far as possible to resolve her ambivalence about wanting to combine family and career or school. She is given advice, helped to plan, provided with information to assist her in decision making, and often assigned tasks to complete while the group sessions are going on. Usually all of this transpires within five to twelve sessions of an hour and a half to two hours.

Always the emphasis is on current problems and how to tackle them. What is often suggested is a gradual reentry, in the form of part-time employment or schooling. Most of the agencies are actively encouraging community employers and colleges to reassess the notion of part-time work and study. Catalyst and many of its local affiliates are working with employers to promote flexible scheduling for employees, particularly women who wish to combine home with career.

In summary, the goals of such groups are to help the participants learn who they are and what they want, learn strategies to achieve their ends, and gain the self-confidence they need to be able to know what responsibilities they must undertake themselves and what can be left to others. They learn that they do not have to be "Supermoms" (Bedell 1973). The groups combine sharing of similar problems and solutions with helping each individual work through self-appraisal and goal setting. They provide techniques necessary to launch an effective job campaign as well as providing information about local employment and educational opportunities. The groups are therapeutic; their focus is direct and reality oriented, supportive and encouraging. As a result, many participants are able to reenter the world outside the home and seek self-fulfillment as workers, students, or committed volun-

teers, often in combination with their wifely and maternal responsibilities.

## CONCLUSION

The women's movement has influenced the lives of many women who would hardly consider themselves "liberated," "radical," or "feminist." It has shaken traditional roles and beckons women who still value them to consider other options. The confusion and mild depression a woman might feel as a result of being "shaken up" are situational and societal, the consequence of shifting and changing roles and options. Such feelings are not neurotic or deep seated and therefore are often best relieved by therapeutic intervention that differs from traditional psychotherapy.

This need has been met by the establishment of agencies and services often not associated with the women's movement per se or with traditional counseling. Yet these agencies have provided an important new kind of "therapy" for these women. It is direct, it is reality based, and it encourages realistic self-appraisal and goal-setting; and in this way it is liberating. This new counseling redefines expected roles and behavior and simultaneously provides identification with and acceptance into a group of peers. Thus these agencies have helped many women find comfort and success in fulfilling multiple roles.

Today's counselors should be aware of these women, their needs, and the agencies they can turn to for assistance. These agencies really do need the help of professional consultants or staff members in supervising and evaluating the group and individual counseling the agencies provide. They must know when to refer a woman for more intensive counseling or therapy, and they must become familiar with sympathetic professionals to whom they can refer such women. The converse holds true for counselors: They must be able to recognize presenting



problems that might best be solved by the help of these agencies and therefore must become familiar with available resources in their communities.

A new breed of woman is emerging. She wants to embrace traditional as well as self-fulfilling roles. She may want to be a homemaker and a career woman simultaneously, and she realizes that these roles need not be mutually exclusive. Counselors must be ready to help such women and their men to cope with the stresses that such a shift in roles may engender. How our profession will deal with this newly emerging woman presents an exciting future challenge. ■

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## Portraits

I skip down the hall  
like a boy of seven  
before the last bell of school  
and the first day of summer  
My ivy-league tie  
flying  
through the stagnant air  
that I break into small breezes  
as I bobblingly pass,  
At my side  
within fingertip touch  
a first grade child  
with a large cowlick  
Roughly traces my every step  
filling in spaces  
with moves of his own  
on the janitor's just-waxed floor,  
"Draw me a man?"  
I stop and ask  
And with no thought  
of crayons and paper  
He shyly comes  
with open arms  
to quietly take me in.

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For centuries people have given varying degrees of importance to their mental images: fantasies, dreams, visions, and hallucinations. In the early part of the twentieth century psychology was a science of the mind, and interest in mental imagery—particularly the “pathological” forms—ran high. The main thrust of psychology gradually turned away from studies of attention, imagery, and other states of consciousness, however, and moved toward studies of behavior and the unconscious. The past twenty-five years has seen a reemergence of interest in conscious mind phenomena (Holt 1964).

Many contemporary psychotherapists and counselors have been giving close attention to the fantasy life of their clients. For diagnostic purposes, fantasy material has been standardized in psychometric devices such as the Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Tests. A variety of techniques have been developed to help clients explore their fantasies and grow from whatever feelings and insights the fantasies may generate. As early as 1938, the French psychotherapist Desoille was describing his methods of fantasy exploration, which later became known as the “directed daydream” (Desoille 1966). His therapy has shown how careful use of therapist-directed imagery can lead clients to increased self-understanding and emotional maturity.

Over a period of about twenty years, the German psychiatrist Leuner (1969) developed a technique called “guided affective imagery.” This is a highly systematized method in which the client is guided through a series of ten imaginary situations, each with important symbolic meaning for the psyche. In this technique, as in most current fantasy methods, intellectual interpretation of the fantasy experience is given secondary importance. Instead, the emotions that are evoked and experienced during the fantasy are emphasized, as they seem to be conducive to therapeutic growth.

# mental imagery in counseling

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*Heightened interest in conscious mind phenomena such as mental imagery has been evident among professionals and lay people in recent years. In this article the author discusses some of the uses of mental imagery techniques in counseling. Special emphasis is given to the potential of mental images in the tapping of creative energy and other positive aspects of the “higher self” that may enhance daily living. These uses of mental imagery have significant implications for contemporary counselors.*



Today there are many fantasy methods being employed in therapy and counseling (Kelly 1973). These include "in-the-body" fantasies, visualization used in behavior modification, various psychodrama and play therapy techniques, gestalt dream exploration, meditative therapies, exercises used in psychosynthesis, and a number of variations of guided fantasy methods.

### **GUIDED FANTASY**

My own involvement with guided fantasy as a counseling technique with youth has been described previously (Kelly 1972). I have employed fantasy occasionally in the context of client-centered counseling, generally with highly positive results. The method that has evolved with my clients involves first helping clients to relax and then giving them an opening theme into which they may project themselves in fantasy. Clients are told beforehand that they may experience vivid imagery and intense emotion. They are encouraged to allow their imagination to carry them along rather than trying to direct or edit it. As clients keep me informed of the directions in which their fantasy is taking them, I act as a supportive "guide."

The guiding helps to create a sense of security in clients, as the counselor helps them face fantasized conflicts or suggests ways out of imagined predicaments. When things seem to be getting non-productive, I suggest new routes for continued fantasizing. Every effort is made to terminate the guided fantasy at a relatively positive point. Clients often experience feelings of elation, peacefulness, or joy in a fantasy, and these are good times to bring the fantasy to a close. Fantasies are often very vivid—even surprising—experiences for clients. It is as if they had come in touch with parts of their being of which they had previously been unaware.

The therapeutic value of guided fan-

tasy techniques has been established by a number of workers. My own occasional use of fantasy in counseling has confirmed its positive value in many cases. In addition, however, as I have become increasingly aware of the richness of our fantasy lives, I have begun to examine the implications of fantasy for aspects of human awareness and human development in addition to those we might call "therapeutic." In the remainder of this article some of those implications are explored.

### **IMAGERY AND THE HIGHER SELF**

In his development of the theoretical background for psychosynthesis, Assagioli (1971) has spoken of the existence of the "transpersonal self," the real core of human experience of which the conscious self is generally not aware. He maintains that it is at this higher human level that such functions as creative inspiration, ethical insight, and scientific intuition are centered. Other psychologists, including Maslow (1971), have begun to grope toward a clearer understanding of these "farther reaches of human nature." A great many people have at various times dramatically experienced some of what this higher self has to offer.

It seems that, for most of us, the day-to-day "personal self" is to some degree a reflection of this higher reality, and we continually receive what Assagioli calls "vital energies" from the transpersonal self. These energies are expressed through our creative endeavors, altruistic behavior, feelings of inspiration as we strive toward meaningful goals, and so on. Some of the imagery to which our minds become open during fantasy and meditation is apparently one of the gateways to closer contact with higher levels of the self. Through fantasy we may allow ourselves to be more open to the creative and insightful richness that the imagination can hold.

When the creative potential of the imagination is tapped, remarkable things may happen. Pulaski (1974), for example, has cited several studies indicating that children's fantasies go together with verbal fluency, increased levels of concentration, originality, and imagination. She further suggests that children be given the time, privacy, and freedom to exercise and enjoy their fantasy worlds. Several clients have reported to me that the imagery of their relaxed early stages of sleep sometimes yields vivid ideas and solutions to problems with great clarity and originality. One of the most famous reports of creative imagery is that of the chemist Kekulé, who experienced a series of dreams in which atoms "gambled" before his eyes. In the last of the dreams some of the atoms became snakelike chains. Then, he reports, "One of the snakes had seized hold of its own tail, and the form whirled mockingly before my eyes. As if by a flash of lightning I awoke . . ." (Koestler 1964, p. 118). From that dream, Kekulé proposed the revolutionary concept for organic chemistry that some compounds could occur in closed chains or rings of atoms.

### ILLUSTRATIONS IN COUNSELING

Some individuals develop their own fantasy techniques to deal with feelings or conflicts. I recently worked with a sixteen-year-old boy who was obviously very much out of touch with many feelings of rejection and hurt that welled within him. He had developed an efficient—though probably dangerous—method of employing imagery for pushing negative feelings out of his awareness. When these feelings neared the surface and tears or anger seemed imminent, he would become quite motionless, staring ahead without breathing for fifteen or twenty seconds. At the end of this time he would seem relaxed and composed, the hurtful feelings apparently gone. He explained to me that if he

concentrated on some small opening, such as a crack in the wall, he could actually visualize his negative feelings leaving his body and then leaving the room through the opening in the wall, as he willed them to do so. As we dealt increasingly with these feelings, and as he gradually became more able to face and express them, his need for using the technique was reduced.

Counselors who stay in touch with various levels of fantasy within themselves and within their clients often bring a new dimension of creativity to the counseling relationship. For example, I often experience mental "pictures" as I talk with a client. Sometimes it has seemed appropriate to share these images with the client, and such sharing has usually proved fruitful. The following is a transcript from my third counseling session with a male college student who had been struggling to get closer to people around him.

**Counselor:** Bob, I just got a picture of you in my mind inside a small, circular wall of bricks. Only, although the bricks look very real, they seem to be made of a light, spongy material—like foam rubber.

**Client:** Yeah. (Pause) That's me. I'm here inside those damn phony bricks. Just enough of a wall to hold most people off, if they just look at it. And those that make the extra effort to get closer just bounce back anyway.

**Counselor:** Sounds pretty lonely.

**Client:** It is.

This interchange led us into the consideration of Bob's acute feelings of emptiness and loneliness. Soon we were beginning the task of dismantling the phony brick wall.

Capitalizing on the brief fantasies that clients express may also prove beneficial. One young woman gazed at the mottled green tile on my office floor. Up until this

point she had expressed her fears of the uncertain future in cold, intellectual terms.

**Client:** That floor reminds me of a forest.

**Counselor:** Can you visualize yourself in the forest?

**Client:** (Nods) Wandering. Lost. It's getting dark, and I'm afraid. The trees are so tall and overwhelming.

**Counselor:** Can I be with you there?

**Client:** (Beginning to weep) I need someone to be with me in this place. I'm so afraid of what's going to happen.

**Counselor:** Then I'm with you. I don't know where we're heading yet, but we'll get there safe and sound.

This brief sharing of a fantasy deepened our sense of mutual trust and caring, and it became the turning point in our counseling relationship. The client's new sense of support seemed to enable her to face much of the uncertainty in her life more realistically.

During counseling there may be many opportunities for participation in fantasy that will lead both client and counselor toward greater self-awareness and self-understanding. It is, of course, the counselor's responsibility to decide if the client's personality and the situation during the counseling session make fantasy a reasonable and viable option. Here are three examples of instances in which I often encourage a client to tap his or her potential of mental imagery.

1. When a client is weeping, I sometimes have the client try to fantasize the meaning of the tears: "Try to imagine that you are very tiny and can actually get inside one of your tears. What do you see there? What is that tear really made of?"

2. When a client reports tension or other discomfort localized somewhere in the body, I often encourage the client to understand it more fully. These fantasies are usually fascinating and filled with in-

sights: "Close your eyes and take a short journey into those tense stomach muscles. What do you see going on there?"

3. When a client expresses fears of certain situations, I sometimes help the client to explore these feelings more fully by taking the client on a mental excursion: "Since you are afraid of meeting people, let's try to fantasize entering a room full of strangers. Imagine what happens, and feel your feelings."

### **COUNSELING USES OF MEDITATIVE IMAGERY**

It has been known for centuries in cultures around the world that various forms of meditation may increase the amount of communication between the higher self, or transpersonal self, and the personal self. Recent research on meditation and biofeedback training (Green, Green & Walters 1970) has demonstrated that relaxed states of mental imagery are associated with alpha and theta brain rhythms. It has further been shown that there is a link between imagery and creativity. It may be inferred from this that training in the production of alpha and theta rhythms might enhance creativity for some individuals. This is now being researched with success (Green, Green & Walters 1971). It is known that particularly creative persons tend to have a highly developed ability not only to visualize mental images but also to manipulate their images in creative ways (Walkup 1965). Now we must begin to examine what implications these assertions have for counseling.

In extended counseling relationships the primary objective is usually the facilitation of the client's (and perhaps also the counselor's) emergence as a more fully functioning individual. Certainly this includes the tapping of unrealized potentials. There are some very specific tools involving mental imagery that counselors may suggest for clients who seem to be searching for increased inner



contentment, a stronger will, a greater ability for concentration, or enhanced creativity. It may at times be quite appropriate for a counselor to work at developing these qualities with the client during an initial "training period."

For clients who want to be more relaxed and who want to develop their creative potential and capability for concentration, transcendental meditation (TM) may be an excellent starting point. This is a natural and relatively simple meditative technique that is to be practiced for two fifteen- to twenty-minute periods daily (Maharishi Mahesh Yogi 1969). Studies of personality changes attributable to TM are beginning to appear in the psychological literature. One study at the University of Cincinnati (Seeman, Nidich & Banta 1972) has indicated that changes toward increased "self-actualization" occurred in subjects who had employed TM over a two-month period. Levine (1972) has recommended that careful attention be given to the positive implications of offering training in TM to students and teachers in educational institutions, a course of action that many colleges and public schools have already begun to pursue. Perhaps counselors should also begin to explore the potential benefits of TM for themselves and their clients.

A more specific meditation involving imagery has been suggested by Gerard (1967). The client is urged to practice it daily for several months, hopefully allowing it to become a part of his or her daily routine. The method involves relaxing in a comfortable chair with eyes closed and then visualizing a white dot at the center of a white circle for three to five minutes. This is followed by the visualization of a white cross or plus sign and then an equilateral triangle, each for a period of three to five minutes. At first it is usually difficult to maintain each of the geometric images for the required time, so the client is told to recreate them each time they fade.

The three geometric forms in this meditation represent a natural symbolic progression from unity (dot in a circle) to duality (plus sign) to triplicity (triangle). This fact, in conjunction with the concentration required to perform the meditation and the devotion required to spend fifteen minutes of each day in it, are reported to evoke the constructive and integrative forces within the individual. Gerard (1967, p. 5) has stated that "the gradual and cumulative integrative effects of the practice will make themselves felt both in the inner and outer life of the individual" if continued over a period of several months.

Assagioli has devoted extensive study to the will and various procedures that can be used to develop and train the will. As counselors well know, much of the helplessness and hopelessness that faces some clients is the result of their inability to make carefully evaluated decisions, believe in and plan for a definite course of action, and then carry out the action. He has outlined important methods for mobilizing the energies of the will, often involving the use of mental imagery, or visualization (Assagioli 1971, 1973). Suffice it to say here that he encourages the visualization of the unfortunate consequences of inadequate will, then the benefits and advantages that a stronger will would bring, and finally a projection of oneself after the development of a strong, persistent will. The client is encouraged to visualize with extreme detail and clarity, writing each finding down, and also to give full attention to any feelings aroused by the thoughts. Such feelings may play a large part in creating an intense desire to begin work on the training of the will—getting in touch with one's own built-in motivation.

There are any number of variations that a practitioner may make on meditative imagery techniques. One simple method I have suggested for several clients involves the visualization of a scene or past event that evokes joy,

peacefulness, or some other positive feeling. While in a relaxed state, the client is encouraged to imagine the scene with as much clarity and detail as possible and to experience his or her positive feelings as fully as possible. Most clients who have used this visualization have reported the eventual development of a "warm glow" encompassing their entire being. Concentrating on positive experiences and feelings has real significance for individuals who are dealing with feelings of depression and worthlessness or who are trying for increased contentment.

## CONCLUSION

To be sure, the techniques described in this article are gimmicks, and as such they must be used with extreme caution. They are not cure-alls or quick solutions to problems. They simply represent some areas that might be explored with some clients who have specific personal goals toward which they hope to move. Even a quick look around us—particularly at young people—confirms that heightened interest in mental imagery and other conscious phenomena is not limited to professionals. A search is in progress, a search for new levels of awareness, for new excitement from the mind, for inner peace, for the ability to exercise concentration and will, and for stores of creative energy. There is an increased realization that drugs simply are not as helpful in this search as many once believed them to be.

If counselors are to maintain their optimum effectiveness and relevance in a changing social structure, their course of action is clear. They must begin to acquaint themselves with a variety of ancillary techniques that can reach unrealized potentials and help them to emerge as a fully functioning person emerges. The methods of mental imagery constitute one avenue of many that might be pursued. But to read about them is insufficient; they must be experienced and ex-

perimented with. Their potential for us in our individual growth must be realized before they can be effectively employed in the facilitation of others' growth. ■

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# assertive training in groups

*In this article the author describes a group approach to helping the nonassertive client. After describing the group composition and goals, he presents a session-by-session description for conducting the assertive training group. In addition, he presents suggestions based on experiences in leading the group.*

"It's important to feel comfortable in a group such as this, and one way to facilitate that is to know who we are and why each of us is here. I'm Dave, and I will be co-leading the group. Starting with Becky, on my left, I would like each of you to say the name of all the people who have introduced themselves and then say who you are and why you are here."

"This is Dave, and I am Becky. I will be co-leading the group and, in the process, learning more about conducting assertive training groups."

In this way the first group assertive training session begins.

### GROUP COMPOSITION

Our assertive training groups at American University are based on a four-session model that incorporates a number of principles of learning from recent self-control research as well as many findings from research on assertive training. Each group consists of four to six clients of both sexes, is led by two counselors, and meets for ninety minutes once a week. The counselors are assisted by two specially trained student peer counselors, one male and one female.

The counselors often work in pairs, both for training purposes and to enable

one leader to run the videotape equipment while the other conducts the group session. Usually a man and a woman counselor will co-lead the sessions in order to increase the number of potential role models available to the members. Also, in many theme-centered behavioral groups, the leaders must be quite active and can tire easily if they do not have the opportunity to alternate with a co-leader.

The clients are both self-selected, asking for the group in response to publicity describing the program, and counselor-referred. Often this kind of group is used as an adjunct to ongoing individual or group counseling. The students are most frequently seeking help in relating more effectively with the opposite sex. Others have experienced difficulty relating to roommates, parents, professors, interviewers, employers, and peers. For assessment purposes, the following signs are regarded by the counselors or screeners as indications of problems appropriate for the group: poor eye contact, rigid body posture and hand movements, long response latencies, flat affect, compliant verbal content, and indirect communication of feelings.

### RATIONALE AND GENERAL PROCEDURES

While an explanation of the cause of the client's behavior may be derived from any of several theories of personality, lack of assertiveness is seen as a consequence of two factors. First, as a consequence of previous learning, the client



experiences anxiety when relating to people, which inhibits the expressing of feelings or the initiating of interactions. Second, since the client has less experience with and often fails to receive reinforcements in relationships in which he or she expresses feelings and asserts rights, the client lacks the complex of skills necessary for effective interpersonal communication.

Assertive behavior, one aspect of effective expression of thoughts and feelings, is seen as an integrated complex of nonverbal, vocal, and verbal skills. Often nonassertive clients can effectively employ some of the component skills, e.g., frequent eye contact and fluent speech, but inappropriately or ineffectively use others. The resulting total appearance then rarely conveys the message of assertiveness or the emotional meaning a client wants to express. It takes only the shuffling of the feet or the trailing off of the last few words in an otherwise assertive response to cancel the strength and meaning of the total communication. As a result of the mixed message, the goal of the client's communication is not accomplished, and thus the client is not reinforced for the effort made. Such a client is likely to be less willing to attempt an assertive response in the future.

The ultimate goal of treatment is for the client to be able to integrate the component skills to effectively convey a range of feelings to another person. The intermediate goals become the shaping of each of the component skills under the broad categories of nonverbal, vocal, and verbal.

Two students assist in the assertive training as models for the clients and as participants in the role playing. They have been prepared for participation in the group through their broader training as peer counselors, and they also serve as companions for individual counseling clients (McCarthy & Michaud 1971). The rationale for the use of models has been well presented by Bandura

(1971), who drew this conclusion after a lengthy review of modeling principles, research findings, and treatment procedures:

When inability to function effectively is due mainly to faulty or deficient behavior, modeling is not only the most appropriate, but often an essential, means of developing requisite skills and interpersonal competencies. With the provision of exemplary models, individuals are able to acquire through observation complex behaviors in large segments or in their entirety without having to undergo a laborious trial-and-error process. (p. 703)

Fellow students were selected as models, since research has shown that similarity between observers and models in age, sex, and socioeconomic status facilitates imitation (Beyer & May 1968; Hicks 1965; Thoresen, Krumboltz & Var-enhorst 1967).

## IMPLEMENTATION OF THE MODEL

In order to work toward the treatment goal, we divide assertive behavior into its component parts. Models then demonstrate progressively more difficult behavior, and the clients are encouraged to engage in improvised role play, focusing on one component at a time. Next, clients evaluate their own performance and receive immediate videotape feedback and reinforcement from others in the group. Improvised behavioral rehearsals outside of the treatment group are encouraged, while retention of the important components is enhanced through the use of written materials. Clients maintain accurate records of the frequency of opportunities for and actual accomplishment of their individual goal behaviors. Finally, procedures are incorporated in the model to insure the maintenance of new behaviors.

### First Session

In the first session, after introductions, the rationale for assertive training is presented. Each student is then asked to write down three specific social situations he or she would like to work on and to

rank them in order of difficulty. The counselors help the clients clarify the scenes and identify the needed verbal and nonverbal behaviors. One advantage of this open discussion of difficult situations is that it allows the clients to see that they are not unique in their difficulties. Also, the controlled self-disclosure and unanimous acceptance of the goals of the group help to increase feelings of cohesiveness and trust among the members.

Next, the leaders describe the components of effective interpersonal communication and emphasize that assertive behavior should be goal-directed. After this short discussion, one or two common scenes are identified from those written by the clients, and the two peer counselors role play the first scene. Invariably the most common situation requested by the men for role play is approaching a woman after class and initiating a conversation with her. The women most frequently request a situation in which they find it difficult to refuse an unreasonable request. In each situation the members are asked to set the scene for the models in such a way that it has most relevance for them. Once the elements of the situation have been elicited, the clients are instructed to attend to the nonverbal components of the assertive sequence—eye contact, facial expression, body posture, and hand movements. After each scene the group members discuss the nonverbal components and comment on the behavior of the models. Finally, the student is given a written summary of the principles discussed during the session and a restatement of the homework assignment. This session ends with a homework assignment for the coming week.

For homework each student is to (a) observe a person who could be considered a good role model and (b) practice eye contact and facial expressions in a mirror. Also, each student is asked to record the frequency of opportunities

for and enactments of assertive behavior of the type represented by the scene he or she found least difficult. We try to classify each of the client's scenes into one of four categories of assertive behavior: initiating interactions, refusing unreasonable requests, responding with feelings, and initiating self-disclosure. Clients are given a sheet describing the types of behavior representative of each category; the sheet contains a ruled-off area for the day of the week and for the type of assertive behavior to be recorded and columns for frequency of opportunities presented and the behaviors enacted.

### **Second Session**

Videotape feedback is introduced at this point and is used in all the remaining sessions. We begin with pairs of clients discussing their success with their homework assignments while being videotaped. This procedure is used to acclimate the clients to the equipment and to give them feedback on their eye contact and facial expressions. Then the clients are paired, either with another client or with one of the trained students, and they role play their least difficult problem. The interactions last from three to five minutes, with immediate video and audio feedback as well as discussion by the other group members after the clients have commented on their own performance.

Because the anxiety level of the students is quite high during the initial role-playing situations, it is important that they sense some increased competence from and receive some reinforcement for their first scenes. Thus, in the early stages of role playing, prompting and role reversal are often used to help the students be successful in their initial tries. Krumboltz and his associates (Krumboltz & Schroeder 1965; Krumboltz & Thoresen 1964) have demonstrated the power of modeling combined with social reinforcement in producing



behavior change, while Friedman (1971) found that modeling followed by directed role playing of the same behavior increased assertive behavior in college students.

The focus of this second session is on body posture and hand movements. The other group members are often valuable in discerning how well the client is modeling each component part as well as in reinforcing progress. The leaders focus on giving feedback and encouraging other members to observe critically and give feedback.

The homework includes (a) practicing appropriate body postures and gestures, (b) practicing the role-played scene in the real world, and (c) recording behavior related to the type of assertive behavior represented by the client's first and second scenes.

### **Third Session**

The third session begins with a discussion of each client's success in being assertive in a real-life situation and in increasing the overall number of assertive responses. Good reports are generously praised; poor experiences are analyzed and situations role played to identify the problem area. Often the trained students are brought in to model the desired behavior again. The rest of the session is spent in role playing the second assertive situation of each group member, with the focus on vocal tone and quality. The leaders encourage the clients to evaluate the components of their own performances even before the feedback is given. Again the homework includes (a) practicing the role-played scene in a real-life situation and (b) recording the frequency of opportunities for and actual enactment of assertive behavior.

### **Fourth Session**

The fourth and last session focuses on the clients' most difficult situation and on integrating the behavioral and vocal components with appropriately assertive

content. The emphasis is on developing and practicing a wide range of assertive statements. After a brief discussion of the homework and an examination of each client's behavioral records, most of the session is devoted to role playing, with extensive feedback on and reinforcement for changes that have taken place in the group. The last fifteen minutes of the session is devoted to a discussion of how to maintain and enhance the newly acquired skills.

While increased verbal assertiveness and improved interpersonal behaviors should enable the student to participate in the activities previously avoided, there is a need for additional procedures following the termination of the group to assure that the level of verbal assertiveness will be maintained (Hedquist & Weinhold 1970). We are experimenting with ways to teach clients to obtain social reinforcement for their increased assertiveness in their own environments. As a first step, we help the client select those situations in which it is likely that assertiveness will be rewarded. We have also considered (a) having pairs of clients meet at regular intervals following the session to reinforce each other's assertive behavior and (b) having clients meet with one of the trained students to role play and receive feedback on their assertiveness.

### **OUTCOMES**

We can view the effectiveness of the group assertive training experience from three vantage points: behaviors within the group, behaviors outside the group during training, and behaviors outside the group after training. First, during the course of the group we find that the members become more spontaneous in their interactions with other members, particularly in giving feedback on role plays. Also, by the second or third session the clients demonstrate increased assertiveness by volunteering to act out



one of their scenes or to take part in one of the role-play situations opposite another client. Finally, within the sessions the clients begin giving more personal statements of feeling in their responses to each other's behavior.

Second, the behavioral records and verbal self-reports are used as measures of behavior change outside the session. Almost all clients report an increase in the ratio of number of assertive behaviors to the number of opportunities presented. In general, clients find it easier to increase the number of times they initiate interactions and refuse unreasonable requests than to increase the number of times they respond with their true feelings on a subject or initiate self-disclosure. Invariably, one student out of the six returns to the second session reporting the ability to assert himself or herself effectively in one or two of the situations he or she had chosen to work on in the group. It appears to us that these students already possessed the necessary skills for assertive behavior yet lacked a sense of "permission" to carry out those behaviors. Our initial discussion, which presents a person's right to act in an assertive manner and distinguishes assertive from aggressive behavior, appears to give the "permission" that these few students need.

Third, as with any treatment procedure, there are questions concerning the ability of the client to demonstrate the behavior change in new situations and maintain the new behaviors over time. While we have no follow-up data for the entire group, the feedback from the clients' individual counselors and from a two-month follow-up sample indicates a maintenance of behavior changes on the target behaviors.

### WHAT WE'VE LEARNED

To caution those who may wish to try out this model, and hopefully to insure its success, here are presented some obser-

vations of why the assertive training group is effective. First, past experience and research in the area give us conviction about the likelihood of clients becoming more assertive, and this positive expectancy of success is transmitted to the clients by us. Further, we are advocating a skill-building model that makes sense to the clients and results in minimizing defensive reactions by them. Thus, trust, openness, and a feeling of mutuality develop very quickly in the group and help to increase the client's willingness to role play and openness to feedback.

As with all groups, the composition of the membership and the types of behavioral dysfunction have an effect on the process of the group. We have found it important to have an approximately equal number of men and women in the group, since most of the problem situations men wish to work on involve women. We found that groups composed mostly of men were less effective than those composed mostly of women. Also, a range of skills is desirable within the group, even though all members are unassertive in some way. The quick learner is both an inspiration and a model for those with more extensive difficulties.

As group leaders, we have found that we use nearly all the skills called for in group counseling and pay attention to the group process issues of trust, cohesiveness, universality, resistance, and altruism. One needs to tie client problem statements together, reflect questions back to the group, know when to pressure a client into doing a role play when the client is somewhat resistant, and know when the group is able to assume more responsibility for the direction of the session. It is helpful to have a repertoire of encounter group and gestalt therapy techniques to draw on, as well as basic psychodrama skills. It's true that the leadership skills and procedures used in behavioral groups can be de-

scribed in very explicit terms as compared with those used in group counseling—but there is just no substitute for good clinical skills. ■

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# lay psychology books as an aid to counseling

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*Counseling literature is replete with research articles and position papers that attempt to draw sharp dichotomies between various counseling theories and techniques. Yet counseling strategies employed by practitioners have, by necessity, often been the result of subjective observation and intuition. In this article the author discusses a "common sense" technique—the use of lay psychology books—and proposes guidelines for use of the procedure as a viable counseling strategy.*

Some clients come to the counselor with a fairly clear understanding of their problems and with fairly well defined goals. Their expectation of counseling is that it will provide them with assistance in moving toward those goals. For instance, parents are often concerned about some aspect of their child's behavior, and they want help in modifying it. Or a couple may find that their verbal communication has degenerated into a shouting contest, and they want to return to a state of mutually supportive interaction. Or another couple may be happy with all aspects of their relationship but find that sexually it lacks the spontaneity it once had, and they are interested in regaining that spontaneity.

In each of these examples the people involved may not need (and may in fact reject) a series of counseling sessions in which the counselor focuses on rapport

building, exploration of needs and feelings, defining goals, and so on. In fact, the counselor's attempts to explore the "underlying cause" of the presenting problem or to fit the problem to his or her own theoretical position may result in a great deal of frustration for the client and may lead to the client's disenchantment with counselors as a source of help. Very often such people are simply seeking cognitive instruction in methods of achieving their goals. One way of providing this instruction is through the use of lay psychology books.

The suggestion to use written material as an aid to counseling is by no means new. Several authors have identified novels, autobiographies, and biographies as useful tools in understanding and directing client behavior. It has been proposed, for instance, that *Catcher in the Rye* is a novel that can assist counselors in



understanding the attitudes and feelings of the adolescent (McWhirter 1970). And these three types of books have also been cited as sources of descriptive models that clients may wish to emulate (Krumboltz 1966; Young 1963). Written material of this nature makes no pretense of serving as a guide to adaptive behavior. Lay psychology books, on the other hand, are expressly written to be do-it-yourself problem solvers or growth enhancers.

The last decade has witnessed a growing popularity of lay psychology books that are designed as guides to adaptive behavior; some of them (e.g., *I'm OK—You're OK*, *The Joy of Sex*, *How to Be Your Own Best Friend*) have become best sellers. Suggesting that every client read a book as part of the counseling process would be a highly suspect practice for any counselor to engage in. It is the thesis of this article, however, that lay psychology books can provide useful cognitive instruction and that there are definable guidelines that should be considered whenever a counselor employs a book as an aid to counseling. The following case reviews are illustrative of situations in which counselors have referred clients to books as an aid to counseling.

### TYPICAL CASES

Johnny's school psychologist referred him to a counselor during the final month of his fifth-grade school year. Johnny was not doing well academically, although test data indicated that he had above average intelligence. Everyone (parents, school psychologist, teacher, and Johnny) thought Johnny had a personality conflict with his teacher. Things were not going well at home either. Johnny's parents, both professional people, felt that Johnny had more than his share of psychological problems, and they had taken him to a neurologist, a psychiatrist, and an audiologist as well as providing special tutoring in reading

and mathematics over the two years prior to this referral. It was evident that Johnny was not living up to his parents' expectations and that, in his parents' view, any "abnormal" performance was cause for seeking professional help. The counselor met with Johnny on two occasions and was struck by the fact that Johnny was also beginning to believe that he had many things wrong with him. This provided Johnny with a built-in excuse for denying responsibility for his own behavior, since his behavior was controlled by his many "defects."

Rather than work directly with Johnny, which would have further reinforced his image as a problem child, the counselor met with his parents and suggested that Johnny had little chance of doing anything right when the focus of everyone's attention was on what he was doing wrong. The book *I'm OK—You're OK* was suggested to the parents as a book that might be helpful in redirecting their interest in Johnny to those things he had going for him and what he was doing right.

The parents were ripe for this kind of suggestion, and they spent the summer trying to provide a "You're OK" environment for Johnny after reading the book. The following fall Johnny entered sixth grade, and school personnel reported that Johnny's behavior was much improved.

A second example demonstrates how a lay psychology book can help a client overcome a societally imposed attitude that impedes progress toward the client's stated goal. Martha, a young woman whose male roommate had left her after a six-month period of cohabitation, sought counseling to become more assertive with others, especially men. She intimated to the counselor that her interpersonal relationships had taken on a repetitive pattern, one in which a potentially close, positive affiliation gradually evolved into a relationship in which she was taken for granted. Martha felt that

her former roommate, for example, might have invested more in their relationship if she had made her own needs known rather than subjugating them to his needs.

The counselor appropriately suggested assertive training. All went well until Martha was asked to begin asserting herself with people she came in contact with outside the counseling office. Despite her expressed need to be more assertive, she still questioned her *right* to be assertive. Assurances by the counselor seemed ineffectual at this point, so the counselor suggested that Martha read *Your Perfect Right*, a book about assertive training written for lay and professional readers. Martha reported at the next session that after reading the book she had been able to confront a supermarket cashier with a small error in the price of a grocery item, something she had been unable to do previously. She also indicated a willingness to practice being more assertive with a number of other people.

The third example involves the use of a lay psychology book as an aid to marital counseling. The Smiths sought counseling because their communication with each other had become increasingly characterized by no-win arguments followed by long periods of noncommunication. The marriage counselor they were referred to pointed out the dynamics of their no-win arguments as they occurred in the counseling session, but the Smiths were unable to grasp the interlocking nature of their respective roles in each confrontation. The counselor suggested that they read selected chapters of *Games People Play* and *The Intimate Enemy* independently and not discuss either book before their next joint counseling session. By reading about the dynamics of "rapo" and "unfair fighting" in the absence of an emotion-packed confrontation, they were able to grasp the nature of their own destructive communication pat-

terns, and they expressed a desire to try alternate ways of relating.

### SOME GUIDELINES

The strategy of suggesting a book to resolve client concerns is not likely to win the approval of theoreticians, but its efficacy can hardly be denied. Few academicians would be so brazen as to suggest that their behavior has not been affected by the books they have read. At the same time, a cognitive learning approach is not appropriate with all clients and could obviously do more harm than good in some cases. For instance, some clients, at least initially, need the emotional-psychological support of an empathic counselor as they work through their problems. Others would have difficulty relating written material to their own life space if it did not fall into their unique metaphorical frame of reference. And some individuals would simply find reading a boring or laborious task.

The following guidelines should be considered prior to using a lay psychology book as an aid to counseling.

1. The client's problem should be one that lends itself well to an intervention based on cognitive learning. That is, the client's problem should center on a need for growth rather than a need for some type of remediation. (This is not always readily apparent; in the case of Johnny, the focus of other professionals had been on remediation for the child rather than on a learning experience for the parents.)

2. The counselor should feel assured that the client has the problem adequately defined and is primarily interested in a means of resolving it. This implies that the counselor consider the possibility that the presenting problem is only a symptom of a more serious underlying problem.

3. The counselor should have confidence in the client's ability to assimilate

late the material presented in the book. This implies that the client should be interested enough to read the type of book that is suggested as well as have the intellectual capacity to understand the content.

4. The counselor should be thoroughly familiar with the contents of the book to be sure of a proper referral and to be in a position to discuss any and all parts of the book with the client as the need arises.

5. It is desirable, though not essential, that there be a session in which the contents of the book are discussed after the client has read it. The purpose of such a session is to assess the extent to which the client has assimilated the content of the book in a manner that will prove helpful.

6. Some type of follow-up procedure should be employed to determine if the book has been helpful or if other procedures are in order. The session in which a book is suggested as an aid to counseling should never function as a terminating session.

Examples of lay psychology books in addition to those already mentioned are listed at the end of this article. The volumes referred to here are only a few examples of books that could be used as an aid to counseling, and they by no means represent an exhaustive list of such books.

One further note of caution: A counselor should never refer a client to a book because the counselor's own knowledge in the client's problem area is too limited to be helpful in personal counseling or because the problem deals with an area that is anxiety-laden for the counselor. In either case the counselor is not likely to be in a position to suggest an appropriate book and should instead refer the client to a counselor who can deal with the problem. For this reason, the counselor who contemplates referring a client

to a lay psychology book should first reflect on his or her own motivation for using this procedure. ■

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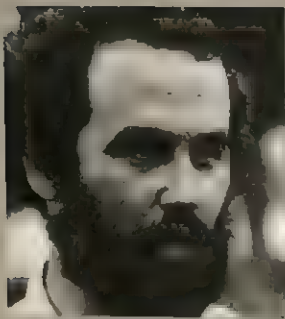


## Introducing This Special Feature

This is without a doubt the fastest Special Feature we have ever put together, and also one of the timeliest. You may recall that we had promised a Special Feature on correctional counseling for last year's volume; unfortunately that one fell through. I was personally very disappointed, so you can imagine my pleasure when I heard from Allen Ivey that two of his colleagues, Norma Gluckstern and Larry Dye, were prepared to put together a presentation on this topic quickly enough to get into print early in the present volume year.

They did it, turning in a proposal, then a set of first draft manuscripts, and finally a revised set, all within four months of the day they made the offer. Not only that, but they came through with a cutting-edge report of the status of correctional counseling, including their own very advanced work in applying developmental and social change theories to one of the major problems of our time.

The Editorial Board brings you this issue in the belief that the corrections field may offer one of the major opportunities for counselors to apply their skills and commitment. Not only is this field a promising new specialty in which large numbers of counselors may be employed in future years, but it provides a challenging opportunity for us to apply our special kinds of know-how in the attempt finally to change the entire correctional system into a productive rather than a destructive component of society. ■ *Leo Goldman, Editor*



## Counselors in Corrections:

Anyone can tell you how bad a situation is; a few offer concrete solutions to eliminate the problem; and seldom does anyone attempt to implement the solutions. Society has rested very comfortably maintaining an "out of sight, out of mind" philosophy toward corrections, for seldom if ever does incarceration reach into the upper-class structures of our society. Correctional institutions are primarily for the poor and underprivileged. This "out of sight, out of mind" philosophy has generated numerous myths that have worked against reform of the correctional process. The general public has come to think of inmates as something other than human.

The correctional administrators continue to perpetuate the myths by arguing that they have to deal with those violent offenders and that they are underprogrammed and understaffed and need new facilities for treating those "deranged convicts." The custodial practices tend to reinforce the closed system by censoring mail, denying access to written materials, and limiting visitors—taking away the liberties of individual inmates and trying to silence the forgotten few.

In the last decade numerous legal and social pressures have created a new consciousness about correctional institutions. This consciousness represents a very dismal but a realistic picture of what has really happened inside correctional institutions. It is dispelling the myths and breaking up the stereotypes. We are finding that the violence is purely an institutionally created phenomenon and that offenders, like most others, are really human beings responding to their environment. However, we still have to adjust to centuries of learned behaviors. The inmate is frustrated by the reform rhetoric with very little action. Most correctional officers are third-generation officers whose families have grown up maintaining custodial institutions. And the general public is still not quite ready to move away from the institutional punishment modality in corrections. All of these forces will be significant obstacles to the change process necessary in corrections. However, as cited in a number of the articles in this Special Feature, there are small dents being made in the correctional establishment that will allow for meaningful roles for correctional counselors.

Whether the field of counseling wants to believe it or not, corrections is a helping profession. Correctional institutions are inhabited by people who have demonstrated a need for assistance. The correctional system has been extremely successful in locking inmates' problems in and locking the public out. The counseling profession has perpetuated this by making corrections its lowest priority. It is time for the profession to reassess its values and commit itself to corrections.

Generally, society is afraid of change and the unknown. As stated by Elias Porter, a professor of psychology at the University of Chicago, "To change is really to die. For to change one must deny the self of today and pursue the self of an unknown tomorrow! Strange and brave is the man who would destroy himself that he might live." This is true not only of personal behaviors but also of institutional and organizational behaviors. ■ *Larry L. Dye, Guest Editor*

## Surveying the Scene



The role of the counselor in corrections has primarily been one of diagnosis and therapeutic treatment of inmates. What has been apparent in this work is that counselors have been—at best—harmless. Two factors seem to be the cause of this. On the one hand, there is strong evidence that the system has prevented and undermined successful work by counselors; on the other hand, counselors haven't been able to adjust themselves to roles other than what their training has traditionally prepared them for.

It was clear that a Special Feature on corrections had to look at both the overall system and some of the rehabilitative programs now operational in prisons. Most of the articles here fall into those two general categories. While most do not speak directly to the specific roles a counselor might play, all indicate the range of options available and suggest areas in which counselors might begin to develop roles for themselves.

What should be constantly kept in mind while reading these articles is the need for a strong personal commitment on the part of anyone hoping to be effective in the field. Corrections is a closed system and notoriously resistant to change. The system in and of itself can render the most well-meaning counselor dysfunctional. Without a high level of personal commitment and stamina, one can't possibly hope to be successful. In addition, counselors must also become politically aware of the situation in which they hope to be effective. They have to become aware of the factors that block their success, and they have to adjust their roles and goals accordingly. Because most jails and prisons function as closed and repressive systems, the role of change agent has become an essential one for counselors to address themselves to.

In my work as a change agent in one county jail, all the skills I learned in training as a counselor have been called on: staff development, individual and group therapy, support, advocacy counseling, resource and program development, and research. My primary goal has been systems change. Using a collaborative and human relations model, I have tried to bring as many people within the institution as possible into the process of change. The result of this work has been the opening up of one institution to the point where more specific roles for counselors and psychologists have begun to emerge.

Whatever role counselors play, they are going to have to prove themselves. People in jails have seen programs and do-gooders come and go to the point where they have become pessimistic and suspicious. Here perhaps more than in any other field people cannot be "conned" by professional jargon. You have to be sincere and willing to put yourself on the line. You can expect to be tested and challenged repeatedly. Your credentials are not enough.

The need for effective counselors in the field of corrections is real. But counselors will have to create the entry for themselves. It will be difficult, but if one survives, it can be tremendously rewarding. As Judge Bazelon, who has been active in the criminal justice system for many years, said at the Lake Wales Conference, "Although you will not be able to deliver a rose garden, you will help identify and create the conditions and the work needed for the garden's growth." ■ *Norma B. Gluckstern, Guest Editor*



LARRY L. DYE

JAMES P. SANSOUCI

## Toward a New Era in Corrections

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In *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society* it is stated: "Life in many institutions is at best barren and futile, at worst unspeakably brutal and degrading. The conditions in which inmates live are the poorest possible preparation for their successful re-entry into society and often reinforce in them a pattern of manipulation and destructiveness" (U.S. President's Commission 1967, p. 159).

The rehabilitative efforts of this country's correctional institutions have been, for the most part, complete failures. Recidivism rates are notoriously high. According to the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, if there are any positive effects of imprisonment, they are at best temporary. The supposed protection that the prison offers the community is short-lived, since 99 percent of all offenders must legally be returned to the community after serving out their sentences. Prisons do succeed in punishing, but they do not deter crime. They relieve the community of the responsibility by removing the offender, but at the same time they make the offender's successful reintegration back into the community unlikely. They change the offender, but the change is more likely to be negative than positive.

Recent studies on the effects of incarceration and punishment support the conclusions that lengthy sentences do not deter either crime or recidivism (Glaser 1964a). On the other hand, reducing penalties for some offenses has brought no increase in repeated offenses; in fact, recidivism has sometimes decreased. An extensive review of correctional literature by Robinson and Smith (1971) led the researchers to state:

It is difficult to escape the conclusion that the act of incarcerating a person at all will impair whatever potential he has for crime-free future adjustment. . . . Regardless of which "treatments" are administered while he is imprisoned, the longer a person is kept there, the more deteriorated and recidivistic he will become. (p. 79)

Pressures for change in the correctional system in America are building so fast that even the most complacent correctional administrators are finding them impossible to ignore. Pressures are coming from inmates, the courts, and even from practicing correctional personnel and professional workers. The general public is becoming aware of the failure of imprisonment as a tool in reducing crime and is becoming increasingly concerned that hundreds of millions of dollars each year are spent on ineffective methods of dealing with crime and criminals. Until recently, the public required institutions merely to hold prisoners until ordered to release them. Now citizens expect that the offender will at least be no worse for the "correctional" experience and at most will be prepared to take a place in society without further involvement with the law.

## A BRIEF HISTORY

The practice of incarcerating the ordinary lawbreaker is less than two hundred years old. It is a product of the American Age of Enlightenment, which followed the American Revolution, and a reaction against the common practice of execution, mutilation, and public pillories.

The first penitentiary, the Walnut Street Jail in Philadelphia, was established in 1790. Under Quaker leadership in the state of Pennsylvania, only murder was a capital offense; offenders convicted of other crimes were sentenced to the penitentiary to live out indefinite sentences in total solitude, with only a Bible for company. Hooded prisoners were guided to their cells by jailers and were kept under lock and key in their individual cells for the entire length of their sentences. This solitary regimen, intended to produce repentance for offenses, led to death and madness in so many convicts that the practice was generally abandoned in the mid-nineteenth century in favor of the "hard labor" system. Not only had the solitary confinement led to insanity rather than penitence, but the corporal punishments that the Quakers had sought to end flourished behind the closed-in walls.

In 1870 the newly formed American Prison Association met to draw up a set of goals for prisons. The meeting was marked by prayer and a reform spirit "similar to that of the disciples on the Mount of Transfiguration" (Mitford 1973, p. 33). At that meeting the first comprehensive set of guiding principles to direct correctional reform was drawn up. This "Declaration of Principles" has been revised and updated several times, but correctional practice has yet to achieve nineteenth-century goals.

In the "Declaration of Principles" of 1870, as well as in numerous statements of correctional goals and principles since then, the stress has been on programs for the rehabilitation of the offender. While

the model for rehabilitation has been to promote in offenders a desire to accept the values of society and to prepare them with the basic skills needed to achieve those values, the practice has been to confine offenders in custodial institutions, provide them with minimal support and educational services, and release them with few considerations for aftercare or continued support.

## INCARCERATION: FACTS AND MYTHS

One major barrier to true correctional reform is the confusion over the goals of corrections. Glaser (1964b) summarized the traditional goals of corrections as the "three R's" of corrections: revenge, restraint, and reformation. Since support for the punishment of offenders has declined, these goals have been replaced by reintegration, resocialization, and rehabilitation.

One of the chief dichotomies of corrections lies in the fact that while the intended purpose of incarceration is the reform or rehabilitation of the offender, the process of incarceration itself prevents it. Custodial goals and treatment goals are often in conflict; for example, the goals of self-development and self-sufficiency of inmates may not be compatible with the needs for control and security. The expectation of the ability to punish and correct concurrently in an institutional setting has contributed to the ineffectiveness of correctional programming. Institutional values for security and discipline often create an atmosphere of hostility and resentment among inmate populations. Security and the need for discipline thus become self-perpetuating: Intense security creates an atmosphere of mistrust, suspicion, and violence and perpetuates the existence of opposition rather than cooperation.

Whether because of actual risks to security or because of beliefs in myths about security, correctional institutions

have traditionally restricted involvement of "outsiders" in institutions. Access to an institution by community members is often limited to those providing "professional" care for correctional clientele. Cressey finds fault with the assumption that only "professionals" with advanced degrees are qualified to rehabilitate offenders. "Criminals, like others," he said, "have been taught that efforts at rehabilitation involve 'technical,' 'professional,' or even 'medical' work on the part of a high-status employee, not hard work on the part of the person to be reformed" (Cressey 1968, p. 46).

An ex-prisoner group has written that the strongest resistance to change comes from within the correctional system: "The criminal justice system, under the pretense of dispensing justice, has perpetuated and promoted numerous myths. These myths both delude a society into believing it has an effective correctional system and prevent necessary reform." Some of the myths include:

- Convicts are violent, illiterate agitators; they are sick and deranged people.
- Corrections has a developed body of professional knowledge of the treatment and care of incarcerated individuals.
- Correctional institutions can "help them."
- Corrections has a well-trained and professionally prepared staff, and only this staff is capable of doing the rehabilitation tasks.
- Corrections must protect the rights of individual prisoners; therefore, convicts should not have access to correctional decision making.
- Corrections has adequate programs and facilities to provide humane care.
- Long sentences in correctional institutions deter prisoners from returning to crime.

These myths are substantial obstacles to correctional reform. They are perpetuated under the guise of administering justice, when in reality corrections is justifying its own existence. These myths, perpetuated by the criminal justice system, have created a false sense of security and a dependence on an "out of sight, out of mind" correctional philosophy. As a result of these myths, the general public for years has believed that "punishment" and "the protection of society" are proper goals of the criminal justice system. J. Douglas Grant has written about this attitude in terms of "sinners versus the sinned":

The field is heavily involved with concepts of good and evil, of sin and the reform of sinners. These kinds of dichotomies lead to strong but acknowledged allegiances within the group who are perceived as sinners on the one hand, and within the group whose past is defined as helping sinners return to a non-sinful way of life on the other. Non-sinners have a heavy investment in not being mistaken for sinners . . . to make certain that they are not perceived either by others or themselves as "like that." (Grant 1967, p. 4)

## TOWARD COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Traditionally, correctional agencies have not based their programs and operations on specific statements of purpose or expected outcome. Because of the confusion over the purposes of corrections and the existence of competing and conflicting correctional goals, correctional program planning is most often decided in terms of perceived risks rather than potential benefits. It has been far simpler to close institutions to community influences and quietly go about the business of custodial care than to attempt any ambitious programs of reform.

Despite the much advertised "rehabilitation" programs, an examination of correctional budgets gives a clear indication of the priorities of corrections. At the federal and state levels in the United States, approximately 5 percent of the



operational budgets of correctional institutions is used for inmate care. Yet the American public, when surveyed by the U.S. Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training in 1968, strongly favored an opposite emphasis. According to that survey, 72 percent of the public thought that the emphasis of corrections should be rehabilitation, and only 12 percent favored a purely custodial emphasis (Joint Commission 1968, p. 7).

Restricting convicted offenders from positive forces in the community during the sentencing period actually prevents them from experiencing the means and stimuli to pursue a lawful style of living in the community. For the offender who has had too little contact with the positive aspects of the community—good schools, gainful employment, adequate housing, rewarding leisure-time activities—the traditional approach to corrections will probably fail.

Both the offender and the community must become the focus of correctional activity. With this thrust, the reintegration of the offender into the community comes to the forefront as a major purpose of corrections. The reintegration of the offender requires the participation not only of the offender and correctional personnel but also the police, the judicial system, public and private agencies, citizen volunteers, and civic groups. The necessity of interplay between the correctional system and other parts of the public sector demands civic participation to degrees not foreseen even a few years ago.

The new reintegration goals for corrections include the concept of "bridging": the establishment of positive links between the offender and free society. The offender must participate in programs that provide as many normal experiences in the community as possible. In addition to the offender's being allowed to relate outwardly to the community, correctional facilities should be

opened to community access. The resulting two-way flow of inmates to the community and community members to correctional facilities provides a controlled means of enabling inmates to experience positive, normal interactions with the community, while permitting increasing community involvement in corrections in a supervised setting.

The types and numbers of programs that could develop to link the community and the offender are endless, and all of them fall under the umbrella of what is referred to as "community-based corrections." As defined by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1973, p. 222), community-based corrections includes "all correctional activities that take place in the community." Community-based corrections is not confined to sentenced offenders only but to any individual at any stage of the criminal justice process.

A police officer's decision to arrest or not to arrest is a form of community-based corrections. The amount of bail (or lack of it) assigned to a person is another form, even though no "treatment" programs may ensue. Pretrial diversion programs, intervention projects, informal and formal probation programs are also forms of community-based corrections. For the sentenced offender, furloughs, education releases, work releases, halfway houses, nonresidential centers, and prerelease programs can be included as community-based corrections. A guiding principle to community-based correctional programming is that alternatives to custodial incarceration must be used whenever possible.

Community-based corrections seeks to destroy the artificial walls that separate the offender from society in order to prepare the offender for a successful, law-abiding reintegration within the community. Emphasis is placed on the noninstitutional aspects of corrections. Incarceration is seen increasingly as the

last resort—the least workable and most costly aspect of corrections.

Another element common to community-based correctional programs is the stress on the offender's interaction with the community. All offenders have individual needs and life goals that could not possibly be fulfilled in institutional settings. Denying them interaction with the community prohibits them from living, with supervision, as positive, contributing members of society—as taxpayers, wage earners, or family members.

Community-based correctional programs also tend to rely more heavily on offender and ex-offender staffing patterns. Though it would be hard to name any area of the criminal justice system that has not had at least some level of offender and ex-offender input, past roles for inmates have been dictated more by economic pressure, exploitation, and personal manipulation than by any philosophical belief in the value of involving inmates in correctional work. Community-based correctional programs often include systematic training programs for the development of offenders as professional and subprofessional staff members.

Increasingly, inmates are being involved in "participation models" of corrections. The participation model allows for inmate participation with correctional people and/or community members in attacking a wide variety of social and economic problems in the community. Providing inmates with the necessary training and support, the participation model allows them to work with others in designing responses to community needs and to exert self-direction in the meeting of those needs. With this in mind, inmates in Massachusetts have designed their own programs for training themselves to become youth counselors and to work in one of the state's youth detention centers. Others have seen the critical need for manpower in a

state school for the retarded, trained for a variety of jobs at the school, and are actually working as paid staff members at the state school while serving out their sentences.

## NO EASY ANSWERS

We would be mistaken to assume that there are any easy answers to the problems of corrections. Since individual motivations for committing crimes are so diverse, and since the needs of individuals are so different, it is perhaps unwise to even speak in terms of "answers." It is possible to identify those elements in the correctional process that must be changed and to go about the business of changing them. Incarceration, for instance, has been attacked as being unnecessary, inhumane, expensive, and ineffective. While reintegrating the offender into society and helping the individual, we must remove the existing barriers that inhibit full inmate participation.

Community-based corrections does respond to correctional needs. It reflects more humanitarian objectives, more directly meets the individual needs of offenders, and does away with all or part of the expense of incarceration. Its importance lies chiefly in the fact that it offers alternatives for individual growth, not set "answers." It fosters a more positive atmosphere in which to work toward correctional goals and improves communication among all elements in the criminal justice field. Hopefully, it will be the mechanism for total correctional systems change without creating a new series of myths. ■

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Prisons, like their larger counterparts—the ghettos, barrios, and “socially deprived” areas—create, nurture, and encourage crime and criminal behavior. Well over 90 percent of those incarcerated in the nation’s prisons are black or poor; prisons thus exist as monuments to the injustices of our society. Prisoners themselves are becoming aware of the injustice of incarceration. Recent violence at Attica, Soledad, Walpole, and other prisons is indicative of the increasing political action that is being taken by those confined within prison walls.

The Black Muslim movement in prisons had a great effect in both creating and perpetuating this politicizing process. In the late fifties and early sixties, black men in the Atlanta Federal Prison stood straight and tall in facing their white keepers to pursue a constitutional and humanizing political stance. They refused to accept their captors’ definition of them and instead redefined themselves based on an image consistent with their own feelings and aspirations. They took their grievances to the administrators, the courts, and the public.

In the process of reaching this level of politicization and awareness, many prisoners spent untold numbers of months and even years in dungeonlike isolation cells, solely because of their determined efforts to pursue relief through the judicial process. Strikes, violence, and riots broke out within prisons as a means of protesting against prison treatment. Citizens became alarmed by these events and began questioning the criminal justice systems. Inquiries were launched by outsiders to establish what was really taking place within our nation’s correctional institutions.

They were told, and are still being told, by corrections officials and some legislators that those protesting prisoners were special cases and needed special treatment. This “special treatment” often turned out to be sheer, naked brutality. The public was led to believe that violence was unavoidable because the people in prison were violent and dangerous to society. They were made to believe that threats of physical violence and “get tough” policies would serve to boost the deterrent factor in prisons and would jolt the “incorrigibles” in prisons into acceptable behavior. History has quickly disproved this.

The men, women, and children in our nation’s prisons are saying something about the reality of our society—something very important. It is clear that prisoners and ex-prisoners will no longer tolerate the present slavlike correctional process. Oppression, under whatever disguise, must no longer be tolerated by anyone anywhere. It would do us well to hear what prisoners and ex-prisoners are saying and to become more positive in response to their enhanced political awareness. They are speaking not only to the authorities but also to the masses.

**JOHN O. BOONE**

**Executive Director of the National Campaign Against Prisons  
and former Commissioner of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts**



# Programs for Offenders

## Roles for Counselors

The articles and statements on the following pages indicate the real potential for bringing about change in the correctional system, and some of them outline the general roles that correctional counselors can begin to play. What is clear is that counselors in this field must make adjustments in their attitudes and activities in order to succeed. Many counselors will have to work as generalists rather than specialists, and above all they must be willing to give freely of their skills and knowledge. In addition to being therapists, counselors must become facilitators, and in making that crucial change of orientation they will be able to play key roles in new programs that allow for the realization of human potential.



## Adapting Systems to People

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It is time for the helping professions to take serious stock of the areas of correctional counseling and correctional psychology. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice documented the need for an additional 75,000 correctional counselors and caseworkers at a pay base of \$10,000 to \$14,000 a year by 1975. They went on to say:

Correctional agencies across the country face acute shortages of qualified manpower, especially in positions charged with responsibility for treatment and rehabilitation. Thousands of additional probation and parole officers are required now to achieve minimum standards for effective treatment and control. Many more thousands will be needed in the next decade. (President's Commission 1967, p. 162)

Traditionally the field of correctional counseling has been an unrewarding area of professional training. There have been many reasons for this. Aside from the traditionally low-paying positions and the rural location of the institutions, the working conditions are often very difficult; and the public image of the work, and therefore its prestige, is generally poor.

An additional problem is that the correctional establishments have never had a clearly defined statement of goals. Is corrections there to punish the offender, or is it there to rehabilitate the offender? Traditionally, corrections has been a punishment factory; within the last decade, however, numerous national com-

missions have been pointing up the inequities of the correctional system and forcing correctional administrators to look toward new community-based programming. This process of change offers the most enlightened potential for correctional counseling as well as the most meaningful roles for the correctional counselor.

It is important to note that the manpower figures presented by the President's Commission were primarily predictions that had been based on a very traditional view of correctional counseling. Looking further into the President's Commission report, one sees numerous recommendations for structural and organizational changes within the correctional process. Here too are where the most significant opportunities for correctional counselors exist.

This Special Feature of the *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL* presents some new and exciting insights into the correctional structure. Though the roles are not clearly defined in traditional job descriptions, there are numerous examples of potential jobs for the future correctional counselor.

### NEW ROLES FOR COUNSELORS

In these articles I see three distinctive themes where clear roles are starting to emerge. These roles center around several key assumptions and concepts. The three themes are: (a) the counselor as a social change agent, or a person who is involved with opening up the closed system; (b) the counselor as a resource developer, who provides links between the

services of the community and the offender; and (c) the counselor in the more traditional role of the therapist, who deals with the behaviors of individuals as they try to relate to the community.

As social change agents working to open up the correctional system, correctional counselors will have to rely heavily on their organizational and diagnostic skills. They will have to work at facilitating the communications process inside a closed system. Traditionally, counseling has followed a remedial medical model rather than seeking forms for human development and systems change. As long as we blame the victim—the offender—the medical model seems appropriate. However, the evidence points to the fact that we must now address the problems of the system. It is fundamentally the system that is in need of change. Correctional counselors can go into a closed system and open that system up into a helping system.

In the role of the resource developer, counselors assume a role in which they systematically identify individual needs while still inside a correctional process and link those needs with the resources and programs in the community. As opportunity structures open at the community level, support services must be provided for each individual released to those programs. Traditionally we have been trained for one-on-one and group counseling techniques, but these may not be the most effective ways for us to provide help to our clients. In correctional programs represented here, we see a constant movement toward programmatic approaches to counseling, where the counselor acts as an agent within a facility, systematically helping programs to be effective in bringing about individual behavior change. In programmatic planning it does little good to attempt to "make things better" unless one backs it up with noble aims and specific programs that can make a difference in an individual's life.

Finally, there is the role of the counselor inside the correctional facility. Most inmates have experienced problems in the community that they had difficulty resolving and that consequently contributed to their incarceration. Then incarceration creates numerous types of new problems for the inmate, thus compounding the problem. Counselors are needed to assist in helping to identify, clarify, and resolve the issues confronting the inmate. As we make the changes in the correctional facility and start linking the community with the correctional facility, the individuals, as they make adjustments, will run into behavioral problems that they need assistance in sorting out. Here the counselor can provide a very meaningful role working with individuals in more therapeutic ways.

### MOVING OUT

I like to think that professional helpers in guidance and counseling are ready and able to buy an expanded vision of helping. The vision provided here of a program developer, a systems change facilitator, a teacher of helping skills is a fine vision of the helper of the future. However, the move to a new mode of helping will demand a new type of relationship between our training institutions and the people they serve: No longer can counselor educators sit in comfortable university campuses and wait for the students to come to them. We must move out into the community, teach our courses there, and observe their relevance—or lack of it.

Correctional counseling is probably the most neglected area of counselor training programs. There is almost a complete absence of courses, training programs, internships, and research. Maybe we can learn from this and eventually develop a comprehensive view of helping that does not adapt people to a system but adapts systems to people. As stated by Malcolm X, "If you're not part



of the solution, you're part of the problem."

To continue in old models is to support present inequities. Change is never comfortable, but it must come. Correctional counseling as described in the articles here provides an exciting model not just for corrections but for all of us. Human development must include as a

central component the humanization of the systems we live in. ■

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My cell's floor dimensions are roughly 6' x 9', and except for the bars in the window and the door, all the walls are brick. The walls and ceiling are painted with a drab institutional green color, with darker trim around the floor, window, and door. A curved corner shelf abuts the window and provides a space for books and personal items. Except for the shelf, the only permanent fixtures are a small sink and a toilet without a lid. The toilet seat is cracked and jagged and scrapes you when you sit on it. The sink has only cold water and is so designed that a person could not stick his head into it. It is even difficult to stick both hands and a bar of soap into it. Water comes out at the push of a button but stops as soon as you release it. The walls have scattered nail holes all over the place, graffiti, and names. A metal frame and a sagging set of springs hold an equally sagging, lumpy, and undersized mattress. Like everything else, you get used to it. To the side of my bed the following engraving is on the floor: 10 MONTHS DEC 28 1932. It gives you some idea of the vintage of my surroundings, and somehow you get the impression that not much has changed since 1932. Doing time was doing time—then as now.—Student/inmate

## Diversion as an Alternative to Incarceration

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The dismal failure of correctional institutions to fulfill their alleged goal of rehabilitation has spurred efforts by various communities to develop programs that offer alternatives to incarceration. Early experimentation with halfway houses and probation programs, two of many alternatives to incarceration, showed limited success in reducing recidivism among offenders. Statistics from the National Council on Crime and Delinquency show that recidivism rates are highest among offenders discharged from prison at the expiration of their sentences, lower among parolees, and lowest among probationers.

Informal attempts at diverting individuals from the criminal justice system have been used unofficially since the inception of the criminal justice process. There have been "stationhouse" diversion efforts by local police departments: A person is released without being booked and is merely given a warning or citation in lieu of detention. But for the most part, these attempts at diversion have been sporadic, unsystematic, and at times unfair to those who were not "screened out."

A number of jurisdictions have created intervention projects aimed at removing an individual from the formal criminal justice system. These include numerous police crisis intervention projects, youth service diversion programs, drug abuse diversion programs, mental health programs, and others.

### PRETRIAL DIVERSION PROJECTS

Major program development impetus for pretrial diversion projects has come from the U.S. Department of Labor. The Department of Labor, under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (MDTA), provided funds for testing and experimenting with "post-arrest/pre-arraignment" manpower programs. Some elements were common to the programs funded by MDTA:

- Provided the offender met certain formal eligibility criteria, he or she could voluntarily be diverted to a program of supportive manpower services including job training, placement, counseling, and so forth, for a specific period of time.
- The diversion programs would be initiated at the point of an offender's arraignment. With the agreement of the prosecutor and judge, charges would not be prosecuted during the period in which the offender was enrolled in the diversion program.
- After completing the diversion period, the offender would return to court for action regarding his or her charges. Based on the recommendations and information supplied by the diversion project staff, the prosecutor could request either the dismissal of the charges, an extension of the diversion program, or resumption of prosecution for participants who failed to achieve program goals.

Two well-known demonstration projects, Project Crossroads in Washington, D.C., and Vera Institute's Manhattan

Court Employment Project in New York, began operations as pretrial intervention programs in the mid-sixties. Both were designed to be alternatives to adjudication, with successful completion of the diversion programs resulting in dismissal of charges. Both programs were successful in reducing recidivism among project participants. The recidivism rate for participants in the Project Crossroads program was 22 percent, as opposed to 46 percent in a control group that did not receive program resources.

The economics of pretrial diversion programs is an additional benefit. The Project Crossroads diversion program had a per capita cost of about six dollars a day. The per capita cost of institutionalization in correctional facilities in the District of Columbia averaged about seventeen dollars a day during the same period.

#### **NATIONAL PRETRIAL INTERVENTION SERVICE CENTER**

The American Bar Association's Commission on Correctional Facilities and Services was funded by the Department of Labor in March 1973 to establish a National Pretrial Intervention Service Center. The center, in cooperation with the National District Attorneys Association, was designed to provide technical assistance to various jurisdictions to develop new pretrial intervention programs and establish a clearinghouse service to communicate information on diversion programs. In responding to inquiries, the center attempts not only to suggest the value of intervention strategies but also to point out the necessity for being fully cognizant of factors such as legal issues, research and evalua-

tion needs, and innovation strategies. The center has assisted in the planning of pretrial intervention programs in Rochester, New York; St. Louis, Missouri; Nashville, Tennessee; Tacoma, Washington; Carbondale, Illinois; Montgomery County, Maryland; and Buffalo, New York.

"Diversion is an opportunity, not a solution" (Breed 1972). While the center does not attempt to project pretrial intervention as a panacea to solve all criminal justice ills, the development of a systematic means of identifying those persons who could, without significantly increased danger to society, be screened out of the criminal justice system and who could benefit from an intervention program must be a priority for the field of criminal justice over the next few years. Other alternatives to incarceration and to formal processing through the criminal justice system should also be explored. "If it is seen exclusively as a solution, diversion programs, like their correctional predecessors, will fail. To develop a system that utilizes diversion in a planned and constructive fashion, there must be a radical overhaul in the nature and character of some of today's most cherished social institutions" (Corrections 1973).

It is time to develop a variety of alternatives to a system that, for hundreds of years, *has not worked*. ■

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## Juvenile Corrections: It Starts Here

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Throughout the nation the response to the adult correctional system is "reform it." The system that is often overlooked, however, is the breeding ground for adult inmates: juvenile correctional institutions. They have not deterred criminal activity; they have not reformed youth; they have not reduced recidivism. Quite to the contrary, they have taught youngsters crime, and they have been turning out institutionally dependent people. The Uniform Crime Reports cite that 74.25 percent of the juveniles incarcerated will return to prison. A frequently used and accurate analogy likens these juvenile reform institutions to our high schools and elementary schools: Just as the school system prepares youth for college and future independence, these reform schools, or training schools, graduate their "students" into adult prisons and dependency. A major step in reforming our prisons is not to train youngsters for prison and criminal life but to start breaking the chain of events that ultimately leads to imprisonment by closing the juvenile training schools.

In January of 1972 the oldest and last juvenile training school in Massachusetts closed, symbolizing the end to juvenile institutions. Following is a description of alternatives to institutions for juveniles. These alternatives offer not only a break in the institutional link for youth but also

relevant educational experiences for students who plan careers in corrections.

### THE UNIVERSITY AND JUVENILE SERVICE

The early involvement of the University of Massachusetts in juvenile justice was oriented to assisting the Department of Youth Services' move from strict and heavy forms of institutionalization toward the concept of community-based treatment. The primary goal was to close juvenile institutions throughout the state. Varied and broad-based community services would replace the traditional training school model. Tasks and participation of the university escalated as the Department of Youth Services (DYS) defined its objectives and as the university continued to expand its resources in support of these objectives.

### Juvenile Opportunities Extension

The relationship between DHS and the University of Massachusetts developed with a group of concerned students, faculty members, and receptive youth service personnel interested in juvenile care. In the fall of 1971 their interest was formalized through the establishment of the Juvenile Opportunities Extension Program (JOE), a student volunteer organization. This organization focused undergraduate energies toward helping youngsters in a local detention center. The students joined DHS staff to provide activities, counsel, tutor, or simply bolster the spirits of a lonely, incarcerated teenager.

By opening up the detention center to volunteers, the institution was thereby opening itself up not only to student and university resources but also to the idealism and commitment of the student volunteers. It was exposing itself to the "outside world," allowing the incarcerated youngster a more realistic and diverse experience while in the institution.

Students who worked in the detention center were better able to gain the experience and expertise needed to be eligible for employment within the juvenile justice field. This combination of field work and education focused toward employable skills as exemplified by a recent graduate of the university. Cindy was one of the first students to volunteer her services to the detention center. She followed up this volunteer work by becoming director of the JOE volunteer program. Eventually she worked in the institution on a full-time basis, and she finally became a parole officer in the Springfield and Holyoke area.

The success and expansion of the student volunteer program suggested that the university and its students might extend their role in assisting DYS to achieve its ultimate goal—closing juvenile institutions. In 1972 two residential programs began on the Amherst campus of the University of Massachusetts.

#### **Advocates for the Development of Human Potential**

The ADHP program, located in the Amherst community, is a long-term residential program for youth who have been committed to DYS. It serves primarily youth who do not have options for returning to their home or family environment. Under the program structure, a youngster lives with a university graduate student in an extension of a foster-parent relationship, a model that provides individual care for each youngster within the framework of a large program. Both parties interact in a

mutual relationship focused on support, security, and growth; and as the needs of youth vary, so too this program strives toward flexibility in accordance with individual needs. Graduate students commit themselves for one year, working to help the youngsters make a successful social adjustment and to turn them on to educational opportunities. Graduate students must call on counseling and advocacy skills as well as provide for the basic emotional support of the youngster. Very often the involvement continues beyond the one-year program commitment.

#### **Massachusetts Association for the Reintegration of Youth**

Unlike the Advocates program, MARY is a short-term residential placement program situated directly on campus. It makes use of two dormitories in which undergraduates act as host students to youth who have been committed or referred by the courts. The youths stay in the program for three to six months. During this time an undergraduate and a youth room together. This arrangement lends itself to a close, one-to-one relationship between the youth and the student, which gradually strengthens through daily interaction. The emphasis is on the youth's returning to the community, with an aftercare support mechanism set up through the program.

Both these two programs have a paid staff to counsel, guide, and educate the students and the youngsters. Although the responsibility is great and the task difficult, youthful enthusiasm and resilience more than compensate for the lack of experience. The relative success of the programs has been due to the students: the attitude they bring to the problem of delinquency, their more flexible living environment, and their generating a higher level of energy that helps the youngsters communicate with themselves, others, and society.

## Teen Learning Center

Since there is a substantial population of youth in the vicinity of the university whose educational needs are not always met by the public school system, an alternative school has been developed through the university's school of education. Graduate and undergraduate students are the school's major resource. Students who teach and administrate this school try to provide an individualized curriculum for each youngster. In many cases an emphasis is placed on preparing a youth for the high school equivalency examination. However, there are means for college-preparatory, vocational, and artistic training. The essential thrust of the school is that the needs, decisions, and goals of each youth are given full consideration and support.

A "graduate" of the Teen Learning Center not only completes the high school equivalency exam but, most importantly, is required to establish for himself or herself some patterns for long-term goals. This may be in terms of college or college-preparatory work, or it may be in terms of a job or a vocational pursuit. Underlying all these goals is the promotion of the student's sense of responsibility for self. The student is encouraged to develop a sense of independence, thereby relying neither on home situations nor the programs to perpetuate his or her growth.

## CONCLUSION

As with other community-based programs, the residential programs at the University of Massachusetts have had their struggles throughout the past two years. A youngster's entrance on campus does not mean that his or her problems disappear altogether. Youngsters in the program have had contact with law enforcement and the police.

We can, however, see some outstanding successes within our residential pro-

grams. One boy entered the MARY program with a long history of drug use and significant separation from his family. A year later he entered the university as a freshman. A Puerto Rican boy in the MARY program completed his high school equivalency exam and is currently seeking admission to college. A girl who has an IQ of 130 will graduate from the local high school; she entered the Advocates program with the rough appearance and actions of a youth caught in the web of delinquent behavior—she was fifteen years old and pregnant. During the two years she spent in the Advocates program, she struggled with her previous delinquent patterns and the new patterns she discovered during her stay with a university graduate and his wife. The insights she gained into herself during her stay in the Advocates program have caused her to develop the demeanor of an attractive, socially competent young woman, and in all probability she will be a productive member of society instead of one more unattended mother on the welfare roles.

The entire complement of programs operating at the University of Massachusetts took several years to develop. This process included not only combining support mechanisms for the program's operation but convincing the university community that these mechanisms would work. There is one theme that prevails throughout the structure of these programs: The students have been the vehicle by which the programs have been implemented. It is not only the faculty's and administration's confidence in the students but also the students' self-confidence that enabled them to act as paraprofessionals within the juvenile justice arena. The various components of the university community have successfully been brought together to direct themselves as a structured unit toward social service.

Residential programs for juvenile offenders on a university campus are



unique, but they are only a part of a varied range of alternatives to institutions. Significantly, the wide range of choices for the juvenile offender in Massachusetts does not include the training school. Institutionalization does not become ingrained at an early age. The attempt is to make both the youngster and his or her immediate society aware of their behavior, not to isolate one from

the other. When we banish a youngster to an institution, the problem is ignored and perpetuated.

The insidious system of locking up our youth only conditions them to crime and adult prisons. A departure from traditional methods of juvenile corrections is essential in order for substantial change to take place in our current adult correctional system. ■

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I was ten when I first got sent to John Augustus Hall. The treatment there was extremely bad—getting hit in the head with rawhide while it was tied in a knot, getting hit with keys, the mouth part of spoons, the handles of knives, and baseball bats. I went to school while I was there and got passing grades, but I didn't learn a thing about how to stay out of places like that. I was always a target at John Augustus Hall, and the guys who worked there really enjoyed hitting me. There was no rehabilitation whatsoever. As I was going on twelve, I got out of there and was home for about three months and then back in for almost a year. I had the same treatment I went through the first time. When it came time for me to get out, I knew I was going to run away from home again because I was never fit to live at home. Three weeks after I was out of John Augustus Hall, I was picked up for running away and was sent to Lyman School.—*Inmate*

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I have been in places like jail since I was fourteen, and none of them helped me at all because of the nature of these institutions. They wanted you to be good or you'd come back. They didn't give you any direction, and you just went back to the place you came from and did the same thing.—*Inmate*

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## Inmates Go to College

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The NewGate concept was developed by Thomas E. Gaddis, author of *Birdman of Alcatraz* (1955), at the Oregon State Penitentiary in 1967. At that time new perspectives on criminality were being explored in correctional rehabilitation and correctional education programs. Owing impetus to such social reform movements as civil rights and the war on poverty, the new perspectives saw the criminal as a disadvantaged rather than a pathological person, denied access to socially and economically rewarding positions. Criminals were viewed as having been forced to seek society's rewards by illegitimate means, which often brought them into conflict with the law.

The Upward Bound program was an attempt to prepare educationally and economically disadvantaged youths from lower economic strata for college entrance by involving them in an accelerated educational enrichment program. Gaddis decided that the same approach might work in rehabilitating prisoners. However, since prisoners were not high school students who could easily be moved onto a campus for educational and enrichment programs, Gaddis decided to bring the campus to the prison. He also decided that if the program were to encourage inmates to prepare for college, some provision had to be made for those who chose to enter

college on their release. A postrelease component of the program provided financial as well as other support to those inmates who had successfully participated in the program inside the prison and who decided to enter college after their release. Gaddis considered it important that the program remain independent of both the prison system and the sponsoring university—in the first instance so that inmates would not associate the program staff with their "keepers," in the second so that the program would have maximum flexibility in working with ex-inmates who chose not to enter college after their release.

By 1968 the success and innovative concepts of the Upward Bound Oregon Prison Project had generated considerable enthusiasm with Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) planners and within correctional rehabilitation and education circles. OEO decided to fund four additional projects, and the Upward Bound Oregon Prison Project got a new name—NewGate—and became a national program.

### THE NEWGATE MODEL

Though modeled on NewGate, considerable differences appeared in the four new projects and reflected a number of factors. First, all the projects were independently designed and operated. Second, educational and correctional policies and facilities varied widely across the five sites. Third, program directors emphasized different aspects of the program. Fourth, each of the projects ex-

perimented on a trial-and-error basis with different activities in an attempt to find what worked best in the particular circumstances of each.

In spite of the differences, the fundamental concepts of the program were shared by all five projects, and the programs generally operate in the same way. Program directors, usually in association with a university, establish in a nearby prison a core educational component. University professors are recruited to teach their regular courses to inmates. Some kind of counseling program is established that attempts to prepare inmates for life on the streets. Other activities are generated through cultural enrichment programs, which attempt to break up the prison routine and to provide ancillary educational experiences.

NewGate students are selected primarily on the basis of their potential for and interest in pursuing a college education. Rarely are applicants screened or rejected on the basis of their crimes. Most NewGate students have graduated from high school or have completed the high school equivalency exam.

The inside programs tend generally to focus on three things: (a) to provide an educational component flexible enough to bring to the college level slow learners or inmates who have been away from formal education for years and to provide at least a quarter or semester of regular college course work, (b) to provide some kind of group or individual counseling, and (c) to prepare the inmate for release.

One of the most distinguishing features of the NewGate program is its post-release component. But what makes the release component work is the concentration of effort inside the prison to prepare inmates for the move outside. Checking with admissions offices for any problems the university might have accepting ex-inmates on campus, looking for any scholarships or work-study grants or loans that might be available,

locating possible housing—all these are part of the release component. Once the outside resource staff members have familiarized themselves with the available local resources, they begin contacting inside students who will be released over the next few months. Working individually, they begin sorting out what the inmate plans to do after release and how the program can help.

The critical period of transition between prison and the outside world is planned for several months: details of when and where inmates will be released, where they will live, how much money they will have, what courses they will take. On the day of release, the same person who has been working with the inmate on the inside works with the ex-inmate constantly over the next few days. These people help the ex-inmates get settled into their living quarters, assist them in buying clothes and other necessities of life, show them around the campus if they are going on to college, and generally help in any way necessary to familiarize them with their new surroundings. Eventually the ex-inmates' dependence on the staff members is reduced; they go on about their new life and the staff members begin working with new people inside the prison.

The total NewGate experience, then, may span a year or two and is a combination education/rehabilitation program.

## EVALUATION

By 1972 interest in the NewGate concept was widespread. Many correctional education/rehabilitation planners around the country were intent on developing new projects. An in-depth evaluation was funded to assess the effectiveness of the NewGates as education and rehabilitation programs and to synthesize a NewGate model drawing on the best aspects of the five NewGate and four non-NewGate prison education programs.



Prior to the evaluation, estimates of recidivism in the NewGate projects were around 20 percent, a very low figure compared with an estimated national recidivism figure of 40 to 50 percent. But when the results of the evaluation began to come in, it was discovered that although the recidivism rates were somewhat lower than the national average, the NewGate rates were no lower than the rates of the four non-NewGate programs. Curious as to the reason for the unexpected lack of difference among the programs, the evaluators probed deeper.

The first problem was, of course, with the measure itself, but what was interesting about the recidivism rates of the NewGates was that the programs themselves had in part contributed to the higher than expected recidivism rates by various well-intentioned release situations and questionable program staff activities. Released NewGate students had higher visibility than did non-NewGate releasees, which made them an easier target for parole and police authorities. Thus such things as establishing halfway houses on campus, encouraging students to pursue activities on campus, and publicizing programs and individuals—all thought helpful to reintegrating ex-inmates—in fact brought on the heat.

Another finding was that parole and police authorities had higher expectations of NewGate students, since they had had so many advantages through the program. By expecting these ex-inmates to do better than others, the authorities may have been more likely to charge them with new crimes for behavior that might have been overlooked in others. General hostility toward NewGate students on the part of representatives of the criminal justice system at all levels was also discovered. In one state, for example, the parole board sent mug shots of the NewGate halfway house residents to a local police office—the only group of parolees in the state so treated. When

this practice was discovered and stopped, recidivism rates went down.

In view of these findings, the evaluators felt that it was perhaps surprising that the NewGate recidivism rates were not dramatically worse than the comparison programs, where releasees had no unusual circumstances to deal with.

## BEYOND STATISTICS

Looking beyond simple recidivism rates, we see that the NewGate programs begin to look more successful. More NewGate students continued on in college after release than did the students in the non-NewGate college prison education programs. NewGate students performed better as students both inside and outside prison. NewGate participants had better job stability than did the comparison sample; and NewGate participants also got better marks for behavior while in prison, receiving fewer disciplinary write-ups than their comparison sample.

Looking beyond individual performances, though to some extent the combined total performances of individuals contributed its influence, the evaluators found the programs to be enduring, meaningful resources to prison inmates and positive change agents for institutions. Before NewGate, many of the colleges involved refused to accept ex-inmates on campus.

As a final word, it is important to point out that the NewGate programs are unusual programs. They are principally interested in whether or not an effective college-level, noncorrectional education program can be established and can survive in a prison. They are also committed to the idea that rehabilitation programs, in order to help people effectively, must not stop at the prison walls. To do this takes a lot of money—too much, say many. To do this using higher education as the vehicle when thousands of prison inmates still cannot read and thousands

more do not have even an eighth grade education is not right, say others. Elite and expensive as it is—and it is not clear that these are the features of NewGate that make it work—it has provided a rational and thorough model through which many more of the pressing correc-

tional ills can be more effectively approached. ■

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There is still much to learn about how to educate people so that they begin to realize their full potential. Particularly in the area of corrections, where many potentially productive men and women are waiting dormant behind bars, we need to explore programs that will create access to and utilize that potential. We also need to know how to bring about change in social institutions to make them more effective in meeting the needs of the people they were designed to serve. As I considered these two situations, the idea of using the development of social action programs as a vehicle for the education of criminal offenders occurred to me.

An experimental program got under way to explore training offenders to become effective change agents. Funded by the Crime and Delinquency Center of the National Institute of Mental Health, it was intended to train felons during their confinement for work as program development assistants. Eighteen men participated, most of them having long histories of delinquent behavior and repeated confinements.

Larry Dye was one of the first inmates to participate in this program. Larry began by learning to read, write, and think in social science terms by working with his peers in writing proposals, conducting studies, and reporting results. After four months of intensive work, he was the first of the offender change agents to be paroled. He then began work on a small contract with the California State Office of Economic Opportunity, exploring the implications of an emerging new careers manpower strategy for state service. He continued to develop personally, learning to be extremely effective not only in working with client groups but also in negotiating with state agency personnel. From there Larry joined the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training in Washington, D.C., where he conducted surveys and workshops related to the offender as a correctional manpower resource. He went from there to the Office of Youth Affairs in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare and then to the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts. Though Larry's education had gone only as far as his receiving a high school equivalency diploma when he was confined to the California Youth Authority, he entered a graduate program, got his master's degree, and was immediately accepted for a doctoral program of study, eventually becoming a faculty member of the University of Massachusetts' School of Education.

This kind of career achievement is quite remarkable by any standards, and one might be tempted to dismiss it as an isolated and exceptional case—had not fourteen of the original eighteen offenders had similar histories. These fourteen are all currently engaged in social action program development. One is a National Institute of Mental Health Bureau Chief. Another is finishing his doctorate in psychology and has a faculty appointment at a state university. Another has earned his master's degree in public administration. Although there have been some incidents of reincarceration, only one of the eighteen original offenders is currently confined to prison.

This program realized much of its potential. It is a tribute to those involved, and it also speaks to the danger of having limited expectations of those who end up in our correctional facilities. What stands out is that this small study squarely challenges the belief that serious, repeatedly confined offenders must be written off as "losers."

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## Inservice Training in the University

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There is a striking resemblance between rehabilitating offenders and educating counselors. Both are taken out of the mainstream of life and brought into an isolated institutional setting. There the offender and the counseling student are expected to acquire the knowledge and behaviors necessary to function in the "free" world. Each is bombarded with a variety of theories, stylized ways of interacting, and new values, beliefs, and knowledge about other people and themselves.

Both the offender and the counseling student encounter role models in positions of power and authority who do not practice the very skills they are trying to teach. To a minimal degree, the student is fortunate in that opportunities are provided for practicing the new knowledge and skills. The offenders, however, in their institutional setting, cannot test these life skills necessary for functioning in the "real" world. The offender, like the student, must have an opportunity to test out, receive feedback on, and be taught how to adjust these life skills to the harsh realities of his or her own environment.

Given these isolated environments, it is not difficult to understand why professionals in corrections view any collaboration between universities and corrections

as being a difficult task. Many a correctional supervisor or administrator has stated that it takes six months to a year before a new counselor begins to produce, begins to transform the ivory tower theory into practical, applied knowledge. Commensurately, it is a commonly accepted fact that if offenders get through the first ninety days on the streets, they have a good chance of making it.

If universities wish to cooperate effectively with corrections, dramatic changes must occur. Polk (1969) cited eight elements of a university that generate resistance to working with corrections. Three of these are especially significant for counselor educators: traditional insulation from the outside world, focus on the academic elite, and backward-directed innovation.

An examination of the educational backgrounds of correctional counselors reveals that the majority have been trained on the bachelor's level—but very few in counseling. Brodsky (1972) has described four graduate education programs in correctional psychology and course offerings directly related to various psychological aspects of the criminal justice system in eleven universities. Karacki and Galvin (1968) identified sixty-three colleges or universities as having programs related to the correctional field. Fox (1968) found that, in addition to providing didactic work, the universities were trying to provide practical experiences for their students through the use of field trips, internships, and field placements. Polk (1969) found educational programs attempting to meet correctional needs by blending a significant



amount of practical experiences with traditional didactic approaches. Two such programs are the University of Oregon's School for Community Service and the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education's Summer Work-Study Program. An essential ingredient in these programs is the ongoing experiences in correctional settings. Students are able to spend their first and last weeks on the campus, spending the intervening eight weeks in one of the agencies. There is little evidence, however, to indicate that counselor education programs are actively involved in training counselors to enter the correctional field. When counselors trained in counselor education programs are found in the correctional system, the entry seems to be one of chance.

### THE GEORGIA MODEL

In 1969 the Georgia Probation Department became interested in improving the quality of helping services to the offender. New programs calling for individuals skilled in counseling had resulted in a changing role for the probation officer. A choice had to be made between hiring new master's level counselors and upgrading personnel already employed within the department. The following factors were considered in making that choice.

- Master's level counselors generally lacked previous experience in working with offender populations.
- New counselors coming into the system could be expected to take from six months to a year to become accustomed to the system and effective within it.
- There would have to be an immediate increase in budget in order to bring in personnel with higher credentials.
- Master's level counselors willing to work in agencies where salaries were low and working conditions less than desirable were in short supply.

- An excellent relationship already existed between the rehabilitation counselor training program, the University of Georgia, and the probation department. This had come about from mutual experience in prior training programs.

The decision was made to upgrade the skills of personnel working within the agency. It was already recognized that inservice sources and workshops were not sufficient and that releasing personnel for full-time on-campus study would be economically unfeasible and involve a minority of agency personnel. A work-study model was therefore seen as the preferred educational delivery system.

The work-study program at the University of Georgia began in 1970 and was made available to all currently employed correctional counselors and probation/parole supervisors in the state of Georgia. In 1971 a similar program was started for the state of Alabama. The two-year program consists of four phases leading to a master's degree in rehabilitation counseling. Phases one, two, and four each consist of fifteen quarter hours and require students to come on campus for three full days a month. Phase three involves ten quarter hours of electives and is designed to provide students opportunities to take courses not only in other disciplines but also at other institutions.

Although work-study has advantages not available in on-campus programs, it has received little attention for the education of counselors (Neil 1973). It has six direct advantages. First, the everyday experiences of the participant act as a vehicle for the immediate implementation of classroom material. Second, the counselor educator is able to move theory closer to practice by direct contact and involvement in work settings of students. A distinct advantage of this approach is the establishment of a base with supervisory personnel in the agency, thus making the teaching of course

work at the university more credible to the consumers. Third, the agency has greater input with respect to what skills are needed and taught. Fourth, the university and correctional agency are provided a common ground for moving into areas other than training. Fifth, since students can immediately practice what they are taught, the counselor educator has to be able to deliver. Sixth, at a time when graduate programs are turning out more students than jobs, each work-study student is already employed.

Two indirect benefits generated by a work-study program are a lower turnover in personnel (Settles 1968) and greater agreement by counselor educator and agency as to goals and objectives for corrections. One of the most significant studies was conducted at the Atlanta Federal Penitentiary. Twenty-eight correctional officers were randomly selected from forty-three volunteers and randomly assigned to a training or control group. The training focused on developing skills in communicating empathy, respect, and genuineness. Those in the trained group significantly improved their ability to understand the inmate and communicate higher levels of respect and genuineness. The trained group's impact with inmates resulted in a decrease in absenteeism from work, fewer disciplinary write-ups, and increases in instances of inmates under supervision coming to correctional officers rather than going to the assistant warden (Megathlin 1969). Training studies with college seniors interning in corrections confirmed the validity of teaching skills in decision making, problem solving, and program development and implementation (Neil 1973). Work-study helps main-

tain effectiveness through contact with other professionals.

## NEEDED: EFFECTIVENESS

The field of corrections has too long suffered from organizations that are ineffective, programs that are ineffective, and personnel who lack the skills and abilities necessary to assist the offender. It is time for effective people who can deliver what they sell to become a part of the correctional system. It is clear that the isolated institutional environments are no longer functional in either education or rehabilitation. Programs such as the one described here, in which a link is made between the ivory tower and the correctional system, should begin to meet the needs of the offenders in a way that will be helpful to them. ■

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## The Model Program at Berkshire

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Is the term "community-based corrections" simply new jargon, or does it represent a significant change in the philosophy and goals of corrections? Reintegration, or community-based corrections, is based on the belief that programs for rehabilitation of the inmate can succeed only as part of a comprehensive systems change of the correctional facilities themselves. Until now jails have operated as closed systems—in isolation from the rest of society. They need to be brought into the mainstream of society before they can ever hope to succeed in their goal of rehabilitating their inmates to the point where they can assume functioning roles in the community.

### OPENING UP THE JAILS

Institutions as they are now structured teach dependency, not self-reliance or personal growth. The model inmate is not a model member of society. When inmates speak of doing "dead time," their metaphor is well chosen. Jails need an internal transition to become communities in which all people who work and live participate in self-government and the creation of activities and programs.

In transforming jails from institutions to communities in which people can function responsibly, the process of reintegrating the inmate back into society at

large is begun. Inmates must be allowed to experiment with and find out their own potentials within a community over which they have some sense of control and ownership. This "jail community" then becomes more like an educational facility or school, interacting in the wider community just as do our other social institutions.

A closed system doesn't foster its own growth or the growth of its members. An open system can. Opening the jails in this way could provide inmates with a normal access to opportunities in the outside world. This, of course, requires that society allow inmates to be reintegrated. Instead of maintaining old prejudices and stereotyped notions of what "criminals" are, people will have to respond to the real needs of these individuals to reestablish themselves in jobs, families, and communities. Changing jails from punitive institutions to facilitative communities will require changes of attitude and structure on all sides. Inmates can be successfully brought back into the community only through their being members of a true community institution.

### THE MODEL EDUCATION PROGRAM

Sponsored by the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education, the Model Education Program, now in operation at the Berkshire County House of Correction, has begun the long and difficult process of reintegrating all its members—staff, inmates, and correctional officers alike—into the process of jail governance and program development. The Model Education Program consists of a number of components, but



the one thing that ties them all together is the collaborative/cooperative model of their development, structure, and functioning. The goal is in the process, for in it the people involved take charge of their environment and eventually of their lives.

The Model Education Program can be best understood as an ongoing process that provides experiential education for all its participants. In conceiving of and developing programs related to all facets of jail life, inmates and correctional officers have begun to remake the institution for themselves in a way that responds to their own personal goals. In so doing they have begun to take possession of it as their community. At the same time, traditional roles are changing and stereotyped images are breaking down as new alliances are formed.

The initial program development was primarily internal to the institution. Data-gathering teams developed to find out what the educational needs of the jail population were. A governance board made up of inmates, correctional officers, and administrators was formed. New communications networks began, and a full community meeting was initiated on a weekly basis. Correctional officers, inmates, and administrators became involved in a cooperative attempt to define and meet the needs of the community.

Once this process was initiated, outside resources, financing, skills, and opportunities were explored. This initiated the phase of developing ties among community social service agencies, schools, and the jail. These community agencies and schools have had to respond in new ways as well. For example, in order for inmates and correctional officers to take advantage of educational opportunities not previously available to them, universities and colleges have had to offer a more flexible curriculum. They have had to allow for such things as prior learning experience, independent study, field

work credit, and accelerated degree programs. Functioning in these flexible ways, the universities and colleges become meaningful social change agents.

A plan developed for experiential education in which supervised job experience would be combined with formal classes and informal meetings with others sharing similar interests. Inmates and correctional officers worked together, the former looking toward future job possibilities, the latter looking toward changing their roles from that of "turnkeys" to that of "correctional educators."

One particularly interesting innovation brought about in conjunction with the Model Education Program has been "student/inmate" internships. This is a program through which college undergraduates spend one semester in the jail living under the same conditions as inmates. A number of programs already exist for simulating jail experiences and putting those involved in the criminal justice system behind bars for a day or even a weekend. But this program, with its three-month duration, provides more meaningful education to those involved and brings into the jail new forces for change. Students have been helpful in tutoring for high school equivalency exams, in program development activities, in counseling, and in many other areas. They provide an additional element in the block, and this, in turn, provides the benefit of further breaking down stereotyped images and facilitating the opening of the jail.

A variety of programs have developed over the past year: self-help therapeutic groups, individual counseling, traditional vocational education programs, basic education instruction, college course work in local schools, inservice training in group leadership and management roles, and so forth. The emphasis throughout has been on an integrated approach addressing the whole person—on establishing new alternatives

and encouraging members to participate in roles in the mainstream of society.

The following descriptions illustrate how these goals have been addressed by

some of the components of the Model Education Program. The goals grew out of the collaborative model for identifying needs and developing programs.

## The Berkshire Belchertown Project

*by RICHARD BOUYEA, an inmate at the Berkshire County House of Correction presently employed by the Belchertown State School*

On November 5, 1973, one correctional officer and seven inmates, including myself, from the Berkshire County House of Correction started working in the recreation department at the Belchertown State School for the Mentally Retarded. The work in the recreation department was part of a five-week orientation course on mental retardation and part of a career exploration program sponsored by the Model Education Program.

In working with the residents of the school we interacted on a one-to-one basis. Each of us worked with three residents a day for a period of one hour each. During the winter months we worked indoors in arts and crafts, game-playing, and dancing activities. Seasonal outdoor activities consisted of exercises, nature trips, hayrides through the grounds, and rides on the merry-go-round.

Most of the inmates, including myself, developed a real interest in the work we were doing as well as a curiosity about the other activities conducted at the school. As part of the orientation, we had tours of the grounds and all the units. This showed us the many different ways people were working with and training residents. Most of the programs were directed at helping the residents adapt to community living. Residents were being taught working skills, the value of numbers and money, the proper use of the phone for emergencies, personal hygiene, and so on. Our tours allowed us a more in-depth picture of what was being done for the retarded and gave us

some ideas as to what other types of work we could pursue in retardation.

After the five-week orientation, we had the option to work in one of these units. Two of the inmates decided to work in the nursery as attendant nurses. Another inmate chose to work in the infirmary. He has since set up a recreational program for the multiple-handicapped. I have set up a recreational program in the adult learning center. This program has just expanded, and presently there is another inmate working with me. The others have stayed in the recreation department and are designing new programs in that department.

In working with the residents, most of the inmates and the correctional officer became interested in knowing what mental retardation actually is and what they could do to help the mentally retarded person. To this end all the inmates and the correctional officer have been taking a course in sign language to learn how to communicate better with residents.

Some of the inmates have enrolled at Berkshire Community College and are taking related courses, such as courses in human development and introductions to psychology and sociology. The correctional officer and I have enrolled in the University Without Walls program at the University of Massachusetts. We are taking courses in psychological problems and in behavior modification in mental retardation. We are also doing independent studies based on our work at the state school.

The Belchertown program has been designed with a twofold community service in mind. First, it has helped give the residents at the state school a greatly needed direct-care service. Hopefully, in the future we can bring the subject of mental retardation out of the institution and into the community so that the residents can live a useful and more meaningful life. Second, it gives a community service to the adult correctional institutions by giving the inmates skills and knowledge in this field. It will help us to obtain jobs so we also can live useful and meaningful lives in the community after we are released.

One of the most difficult problems we

faced in getting the program off the ground was the resistance by families who had children in the school. They expressed the fear that their children would get second-rate treatment or would in some way be harmed. Both these fears clearly came from stereotyped images of criminals, and the program has shown that they have no basis in reality.

Since the program started, two inmates have been released from jail and were hired as full-time employees at the Belchertown State School. This kind of record should bring about acceptance of similar programs for inmates in the future.

## University Without Walls

by JIM GORMAN, an inmate at the Berkshire County House of Correction

The fact that I was going to do time was not too difficult for me to accept. The severity of my charge, plus my past record, made it obvious that I was destined for jail. Where I was going to do the time and how much time I would have to do were two questions that were much more difficult for me to consider. I prepared myself for jail over a six-month period prior to my trial. When I was sentenced to the Berkshire County House of Correction for two and a half years, I can honestly say I was somewhat relieved: I knew several people who had done time there, and they told me that it was an easy place to do time. At that point the question became: What should I do with myself for the next two and a half years? It was a long term to serve at a county jail.

I found that a friendly atmosphere existed in the block among inmates. I was accepted by everyone almost immediately. During my first week of confinement I kept my eyes and ears open and my mouth shut, and I made some interesting observations. The first

unusual thing I observed was that a number of inmates left the jail frequently for school. I saw people coming to the jail from out on the streets. My most surprising observation was the free and nonchalant manner in which people conducted themselves within the institution—that included the guards, inmates, and civilians from the outside. I learned of a special program at the jail, and I heard about some of the opportunities the program could offer me. I wanted to get involved as soon as possible.

My first introduction to the program was at an orientation meeting. Several inmates, a guard, and one student ran down the program as it existed then. It was a bit much for me to comprehend, but it gave me an idea of what was going on. During those first few weeks at the jail I developed a relationship with a number of people from the outside. I also became friendly with the inmates working with the program, and they began to take an interest in me. In that month I went on a field trip to the



Westfield Detention Center, attended basketball games, and applied to the University Without Walls, a special college program at the University of Massachusetts. I worked on a number of projects and became active on the orientation team.

My desire to get involved was beginning to pay off, but it took me awhile to realize it. I was placed in positions that I had never experienced before. I became more comfortable speaking to groups and meeting people. My self-confidence began to grow. I became aware of some natural skills I possessed. The whole experience of incarceration became a rewarding one for me because of the program. This was not what I had expected from jail.

I looked at the University Without Walls program as a tremendous opportunity. I was not familiar with the concept of gaining credit for past experience until a UWW representative explained it

to a group of inmates and correctional officers at the jail. The application was very lengthy and complicated, and then it took some time before I learned that I had been accepted. Shortly after that we attended an introductory meeting at the University of Massachusetts. They gave us a pile of literature and attempted to run down the total program in two short sessions. The new and confusing ways of the university seemed impossible to get used to for quite some time after that. I stayed with it and slowly got the whole UWW program into a perspective that I could deal with.

Since then, I have written up my program of study and completed all the necessary paper work. At this point I am working on some university core requirements at the jail. I also have several independent studies. For me, UWW is a challenge I have accepted and I continue to work at; and I intend to continue with it after my release from jail.

## The Concord Reformatory Training Project

by **RALPH W. PACKARD**, *Correctional Officer at the Berkshire County House of Correction*, and **EDWARD F. WELCH**, *an inmate at the Berkshire County House of Correction*

Along with the development of the concept of community-based corrections came the recognition of a need for more trained administrative personnel to run programs such as prerelease projects. Since inmates themselves seemed to provide one of the best resources for this, the need for inmate training in administrative and human relations skills became apparent. As a response to this, the Concord Reformatory Training Project was developed.

This project was an inservice training program in which correctional officers and inmates from the Berkshire County House of Correction went weekly to Concord Reformatory to teach a seminar to inmates there. The curriculum focused on (a) developing basic listening

and interpersonal skills through the use of microcounseling techniques and (b) looking at individual leadership styles and their effects on the management of a community-based correctional facility. Although those leading the seminar did not have much teaching experience, they were able to move easily into the role. They communicated easily, and a rapport grew that facilitated effective learning.

In the course of developing and carrying out this project, much was learned about the potential effectiveness of the officer/inmate team as a new teaching resource. Ralph Packard, a thirteen-year veteran correctional officer, and Ed Welch, an inmate who had been doing time over the past twenty-five years in

penitentiary settings, had been working together in the Model Education Program; but there still existed a hazy, difficult-to-define area of polarization that, if not overcome, could have had debilitating effects on the program.

As we began to work together, however, we saw that despite the differences in our prior life styles we were each in our own way "professionals." Ralph Packard was a man amenable to change; he had seen a correctional system produce little but failure over the years. Ed Welch was a man with a bachelor's degree acquired years before but used very little after that.

This unlikely alliance, at least by traditional standards, began the preparations necessary to make the Concord project a reality. We were beset by many and varied problems: curriculum preparation, type of presentation, our own individual differences in educational philosophy. Since neither of us was a professional teacher and the design of the curriculum was our responsibility, the initial progress was slow and torturous, and the project seemed to be faltering.

Slowly we developed self-confidence in our ability to prepare a curriculum of study, learn the specialized knowledge of the subjects covered by that curriculum, and then offer that knowledge to inmates at the Concord Reformatory. We recognized as we went along that we already possessed many skills in the areas of middle management and human relations. Types of presentation developed of their own accord, depending on each

of our individual styles. We built our curriculum around reading assignments, action assignments, and group or team discussions.

We will both long remember our first day at "school" within the walls of the Concord Reformatory and the twenty-two class members who awaited us. No young teacher fresh out of college and going to the first teaching job could have been more nervous and anxious than we were that day. But within minutes of the beginning of the class, as we smoothly launched into our introduction to the course, we discovered that we were indeed "professionals."

The five-week Concord course was completed on December 19, 1973. As we look over the daily logs maintained by our Concord students, we find that they reflect a high degree of interest in the training received as well as attesting to the value of learning self-awareness and gaining knowledge of one's own needs and the needs of others. Many wrote of having developed the ability to communicate effectively; others mentioned gaining a general knowledge of the fundamentals of management.

For us it was highly rewarding, in terms of both personal growth and the furthering of the goals of the Model Education Program. We had initiated, developed, and carried out a program unheard of before. We learned about ourselves in the process, developed confidence in our own abilities, and brought meaning to the new concept of the officer/inmate educational team.

## Comprehensive Vocational Education

*by RONALD CAPALDO, a former student-inmate at the Berkshire County House of Correction, and JOHN D. COURTNEY, Sheriff of Berkshire County*

Vocational education programs in county jails have historically been cumbersome and inefficient at best. Generally they channel inmates into a limited

number of options without giving them exposure to different areas of vocational training. This approach frequently results in the inmates' dropping out of a

program that they had little or no interest in in the first place. In developing a vocational program at the Berkshire County House of Correction, our main interest has been to give offenders an opportunity to experience several vocational areas prior to committing themselves to an intensive training program.

One community resource that is allowing us to accomplish this is Goodwill Industries, which offers a diagnostic vocational evaluation system. The system offers an opportunity for inmates to experience the use of tools and methodologies of various vocational fields, thus enabling them to make a more considered choice among vocational options.

Once inmates have chosen a field of interest, hopefully they will be able to pursue it through training programs in the community. One such program in the local regional high school has several

of the inmates involved in auto mechanics and welding courses. By including the inmates in this way—in the regular ongoing programs rather than in special and isolated programs—the goal of reintegration is furthered. Inmates will become known as “students” rather than “criminals.” And in conjunction with these courses, the Department of Employment Security is helping by developing on-the-job training slots as well as employment opportunities for inmates.

Finally, in order to insure maximum support, an effort is being made to have a liaison person who is not only related to the inmates’ educational experience but is also out meeting prospective employers to enhance the work release program. Hopefully this kind of community involvement will spark a new awareness of the needs of inmates for postrelease job opportunities.

## The Reintegration Counselor

by *RAYMOND LUCAS, Regional Supervisor of the Massachusetts Rehabilitation Commission*

One of the new models for the provision of services to the public offender by the Massachusetts Rehabilitation Commission is evolving at the Berkshire County House of Correction. The basic elements of the model are the vocational rehabilitation counselor and a resource of comprehensive services. Traditional responsibilities and purposes remain, but the role is changing by modifications of definition and an emphasis on areas of counselor functioning.

Each phase of the client’s program is designed and operated on an individual basis. The needs of each client determine the creation and maintenance of any group or individual activity as part of the reintegration process. Clients’ identification with their program and its goals is accomplished through their active participation in all phases of the rein-

tegration process. Such participation also provides an important learning opportunity for clients. It aids in the development of self-esteem, personal and social insights, definitions of and perspectives about one’s problems, and skills for relating to elements of one’s environment. These concepts require that the counselor develop resources for the varied and comprehensive services required to achieve client goals. Flexibility and the skilled use of a variety of counseling techniques are also needed.

While clients’ programs are intended to aid them in dealing with their immediate problems and environment, the main focus is on the life and functioning of the individuals in their community. Programs are designed to provide for appropriate involvement of community members and resources. To achieve



their potential, most activities must be community-based in a reality setting. The counselor, in facilitating the client's program, has a responsibility to play an active role in opening the correctional process to the community and the community to the correctional process.

Some principles and practices that are evolving from association with the Model Education Program give direction to counselor functioning and program design. First, clients are responsibly involved not only in their own program but in the total project. Second, their input is providing more effective direction and operation of efforts within the institution and the community. Third, the client plan is developing as a contract between counselor and client, delineating not only services and client role but counselor responsibilities as well. Fourth, the client plan includes provision for helping the individual develop skills in the art of daily living.

It has been necessary for the counselor to use advocacy techniques for the development of resources that will meet the needs of clients in the program. In this role the counselor supports clients'

causes on appropriate issues with people and agencies that affect clients' well-being and the achievement of their reintegration goals.

A single client may be involved with a variety of programs during the counseling process. The counselor is then required to relate as a team member, promoting adequate informational exchange and correlation of effort. By good case management, the counselor can be informed about the client's experiences and help the client evaluate these experiences and relate them to overall progress.

The development of the new model of counselor participation through cooperation between the Massachusetts Rehabilitation Commission and the Model Education Program has been exciting and challenging. What must be remembered is that this participation process does not deny counselor expertise. In fact, it gives the counselor extra dimensions for making judgments and for using skill and knowledge. Through the relationship, mutual support can evolve, as can open, informed exchange based on shared respect.

## The Program: A Discussion

NORMA GLUCKSTERN and KATE WENNER

Society at large thinks of inmates as members of a deviant, lower species of being. At the same time, correctional officers are seen as conservative rednecks whose attraction to the job is based on the fact that they may have a chance to abuse power. In reality, both these groups—correctional officers and inmates—tend to come from poor working-class families where opportunities were limited and job security was a crucial issue.

These stereotyped images of guards

and inmates are held inside jails as well, and what results is the creation of barriers between the two groups that keep them from working together effectively. Also, to the extent that they accept these stereotyped images of themselves, their own growth and humanness is denied.

### AN END TO STEREOTYPES

A stagnant institution is satisfied to maintain stereotypes and even to build on them. Maintaining the status quo is less

threatening than considering change. Correctional officers and inmates alike feel the impact of peer pressure. A guard is a "screw," and an inmate is "one of our boys." The Model Education Program focuses on the human being rather than the stereotype, in the belief that breaking down these stereotypes will allow change to take place within the institution.

The program has no classification system; its activities are available to everyone in the jail. The goal of the program is to find and build on personal strengths rather than reinforce the feelings of failure. Whether working at Concord or Belchertown, writing a proposal, teaching other inmates, working in public service, or attending a college class, many of the inmates have begun to feel their own potential and are venturing into areas they had not previously thought possible for themselves. The decision to participate or not participate in a program is made by the inmates. They can participate on a number of different levels, and their commitment can grow as they develop more interest in or a clearer sense about the direction of their life. This allows for some experimentation, but eventually an inmate tends to become more intensely involved in one particular area. This commitment ideally leads to a new job role, involvement in an area of career interest, or participation in a college degree program.

The correctional officers frequently come to their jobs with previously learned skills, but to the extent that they are locked into the role of custodians, they do not use these skills. By developing the manpower already existing in corrections and turning the people into helpers rather than "keepers," there is the potential to make a significant step toward a cooperative learning model. Correctional officers can become teachers in basic education courses and in vocational training. They can work in alliance with inmates rather than in conflict with them. An important goal of

the Model Education Program is to define and develop the role of the "correctional educator."

### A NEW ATMOSPHERE

As the jail community works together on common goals, a change of atmosphere takes place. Most inmates and guards eventually become involved in one or more of the Model Education Program's components. With so many people working together, an atmosphere of cooperation and optimism has developed in place of the traditional tension and cynicism. Also, as the Model Education Program continues to bring in more outside resources, the jail itself is opened up.

Whereas inmates previously saw outsiders during visiting hours only, they now see people from the community and outside agencies throughout the day. In the open atmosphere more people around and in the jail are interested in programs and inmate welfare; this atmosphere, plus an increased fluidity in relations between correctional officers and inmates, have contributed to a radically changed environment.

The change in decision making is perhaps the single most important factor contributing to the new environment. The inception of the governance board set the stage for the requirement that decisions be considered by all those potentially affected by them. Though still in its embryonic stage, this has resulted in a noticeable change in atmosphere and attitude. Giving inmates a say in what could happen allows them a sense of responsibility. Many inmates, and particularly those active in leadership and educational programs, have shown a dramatic change in self-image. Where before they were treated like children, they are now treated with the respect given to adults.

This model of program development also fosters increased self-sufficiency. It is a self-development approach in which

skills are acquired as they become necessary. Instead of always having to rely on an outside person to do things for them, inmates have begun to use their own skills as well as develop new ones.

When community resources are brought into the jail, an important cross-fertilization of ideas and attitudes takes place. Without a sense of control over their own lives, inmates often fall into a day-to-day existence. Unconnected to the outside world, jails foster short-range thinking. True, much of the inmates' time is spent thinking about what they will do when they get out, but divorced as they are from the actual situation outside, most of this is just fantasy. Outside change agents who work in the jail as part of their own pursuit of personal and professional goals create an atmosphere of optimism and goal setting. The outsiders bring into the jail an atmosphere of support, of alliance, and of belief in the potentials of inmates. This in itself is a radical change from the

atmosphere of isolation and defeat that usually exists in county jails.

The Model Education Program still falls far short of providing a truly comprehensive program. Ideally, as the jail interacts more and more with the community at large, the program will develop accordingly. The most important aspect of all this is to open the county jail to the scrutiny, resources, and optimism of the wider community.

It must be remembered that the Berkshire County House of Correction is not an atypical jail with unusual inmates and correctional officers. Before the inception of the Model Education Program it was just like the many county jails across the country in which boredom and the feeling of doing "dead time" perpetuate the most regrettable waste of human resources. The keys in making such a program work are to look at the potential rather than the institution, to refuse to get deadlocked by stereotypes, and to push for the creation of community. ■

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**This is how the Model Education Program at the jail has helped me. I think that this and many other programs at the jail have given me and many other people a feeling of trust and wanting to help yourself and the outside world. Instead of fighting with the whole world, you can find your part in it. Like taking some inmates out and going to Belchertown to help people shows you that you can get a great deal of feelings toward other people and that they care about you and that you can do something you like without breaking the law.—Inmate**

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**When I return to jail after being in school all day, I realize what a waste of time jail is. I want to be free, and through this program I feel that I have a much better chance of attaining freedom through choice and decision making.—Inmate**

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## Personal Commitment: Challenge for Change

*Stanley L. Brodsky is Associate Professor in the Department of Psychology at the University of Alabama, University.*

Correctional counselors typically enter criminal justice agencies with high ambitions and goals. They seek to rehabilitate prisoners, to facilitate successful interpersonal relationships, to serve as advocates for social change, and to correct the injustices of our degrading criminal justice system. Once in the criminal justice agency, the counselor starts experiencing the inconsistencies of the system, such as the contrary set of objectives in operation: Corrections officials speak of changing and helping individuals, yet they function in punishment and behavioral control modalities. These inconsistencies very rapidly start wearing at the high, idealistic goals of the correctional counselor. In most cases the entering counselor experiences first a strong sense of distress, then a feeling of disillusionment, and finally a pervasive cynicism. Corrections is notably a hard arena in which to make headway, and many correctional counselors eventually fail at their objectives. Those who do succeed do so because of their awareness of the realities with which they work. These counselors have learned from the circumstances around them and have changed their own attitudes and orientation accordingly.

This change requires a great deal of commitment of any correctional counselor when coming into the correctional field. Counselors have got to be able to deal with inconsistent messages while still being able to achieve the objectives that they have established in their chosen

career. This Special Feature of the **PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL** includes articles describing a variety of roles that correctional counselors can play. The articles have in common (a) an orientation to the impact of correctional institutions on the individuals in them, (b) an awareness that "treating" inmates in the traditional sense is a misguided effort, and (c) the position that the counselors themselves must do hard thinking about their own roles in relation to the oppressive aspects of prisons and jails.

### ADMINISTRATIVE LIAISON

Counselors can play the role of developing meaningful communications among people in the correctional system. Traditionally prisons have been governed by a rigid and relatively impenetrable chain of command. Written and unwritten rules demand that prisoners speak only to prisoners, correctional officers only to correctional officers, and administrators only to administrators, reinforcing within the prison system a caste system that does not allow for cross-communication. In this setting a counselor can provide a socially acceptable vehicle for information, both factual and personal, to be shared and communicated among the different factors. This role can lead to the breaking down of stereotypes, as described in the article by Gluckstern and Wenner on the Model Education Program in Berkshire County. There, improved communications among conflicting groups leads to a better mutual understanding of needs and to cooperative efforts in bringing about change.

## ADVOCACY

The model of the correctional counselor as an advocate is seen in Rist and Reis' description of the Advocates, JOE, and MARY programs at the University of Massachusetts. The pretrial diversion programs assessed by Frank Jasmine incorporate the same concepts. Here we see the correctional counselor taking critical steps on behalf of inmates in order to secure for them their rights and the opportunities that will enable them to successfully reintegrate into society. The advocacy model is an important component of almost all the roles described in this Feature, because it signals an overall change in orientation from therapy to action. Being an advocate in a correctional setting is a difficult task. Administrators don't want advocacy; they want loyal and dependable counselors who will follow their party line. Burns (1971) has pointed out that prisons operate as miniature totalitarian states, where a single party ideology and a single party leader are in full charge of communications and control. In such a setting dissension is discouraged and punished. An effective advocacy counselor will pose a threat to that operational mode. An advocacy counselor will repeatedly have to battle with a rigid administrative mentality, thus assuming considerable personal risk and professional hazard.

## INSERVICE TRAINING

When Neil and Hecker write of the need for inservice training of correctional counselors, they are responding to the problems of the inappropriate use of traditional counseling techniques in the correctional arena. They point out that actual experience and training in strategic skills are more important than formal education in isolated academic settings. The intent is that, for those counselors now confined to traditional counseling roles in corrections, doing nothing may in fact be doing something

very important. As long as "doing" for the counselor means trying to help inmates adjust to an inhumane system, "not doing" may, in the end, promote more meaningful change. Wolfgang, Figlo, and Sellin (1972) have demonstrated that much spontaneous desistance occurs among youthful offenders. The less counselors try to provide clinical services, the better the prospect for fundamental long-range survival of their clients. Here, doing nothing prevents the dangerous labeling of clients that has taken place. This allows counselors to direct their attention to the special processes of the correctional system itself.

The traditional counseling role is always a good entry into the system, but it is best used as a cover for operating in ways that challenge injustices of the system and work to make life there more humane for the inmates. It is better for correctional counselors working in traditional roles to "do nothing" and spend their time developing their own awareness of the nature of the criminal justice system and its effects on the offender. Then, when they do take action, they will be doing it from a clear sense of priorities and personal commitment. I know of two counselors who, when they first entered a closed correctional institution, assessed the situation and tried to determine a way to make their roles more meaningful for the offenders. Rather than spending their time counseling or addressing the system, they spent their first two weeks in the institution setting rat traps. They caught most of the rats that had been running around the living quarters for years. This brought them a better relationship with the inmates and made the institution a much more humane place.

## CONCLUSION

Being an effective counselor is a difficult role. It means holding a clear course against a confusing and oppressive system. It means that counselors must know

themselves and their loyalties as well as the system and its effect on human beings. As indicated in all of the articles, there is a tremendous job to be done. The needs are there, and there is a real potential to fill those needs well. But there is no room for naiveté, and there is no room for compromising of values. Counselors who cause meaningful change in prisons and jails will be those who are politically conscious and ready to commit themselves to a tremendous

challenge in reforming the correctional process. ■

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- Wolfgang, M. E.; Figlio, R. M.; & Sellin, T. *Delinquency in a birth cohort*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972.

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Charley is back in here after a week on the streets. He got in trouble all over again. One of the guards said, "I can't understand it; Charley was such a model inmate." This is exactly the point. He had become dependent on jail life. This is only a theory, of course, but it does explain a few things. I had thought that many people in here could be released immediately with no harm to society. Those that are thought of as violent and dangerous seem for the most part to be very docile. Maybe they're just thoroughly institutionalized. Only occasionally do I see tempers flare.—*Student/inmate*

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When you have to beg to get an hour outside in the fresh summer air, this is not living. Being in jail teaches a man to live day by day. When one looks into the future, he is hit with the reality of the amount of time he has to do in here. I don't know how anyone could stand to do this for years. Ninety days on the outside is nothing; in here it's an eternity. I don't even think about freedom. I've even stopped counting days. There are too many, and time takes on a completely different meaning in here. Men in here talk of eleven months or two years like it was hours. True, time goes by relatively quickly. But relative to what? Certainly not to time outside. It's difficult to remember if something happened today or last week.—*Student/inmate*

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# Correctional Literature and Other Resources

The preceding articles offer many new and exciting ideas in the field of corrections. As counselors, community workers, and educators, you may now have more specific questions regarding an area that is of particular interest to you. There are many new approaches in penology and widespread manifestations of the old. Presented here is a wide cross section of some of the newest and boldest thinking in the correctional field.

## BOOKS

There are many ex-inmates who have made contributions to correctional literature. They are speaking from personal perspectives on the kinds of changes necessary in corrections and the larger society.

**Soul on Ice** by Eldridge Cleaver

**The Felon** by John Erwin

**My Shadow Ran Fast** by William Sands

**Return Me to My Mind** by Stanley Eldridge (poetry)

**Fortune and Men's Eyes** by John Herbert (a play)

**Black Voices** by Ethridge Knight

**Going to Jail** by Howard Levy and David Miller

**Soledad Brother** by George Jackson

**Autobiography of Malcolm X**

**Being Busted** by Leslie Fiedler

**Trial of the Catonsville 9** by Daniel Berrigan

**Manchild in the Promised Land** by Claude Brown

**Letters from Attica** by Sam Melville

**Prison Journal of a Revolutionary Priest** by Father Philip Berrigan

**Down These Mean Streets** by Piri Thomas

**If They Come in the Morning** by Angela Davis

**Blood in My Eye** by George Jackson

**Papillon** by Henri Charriere

**Getting Out** by Edgar Smith

**Voices from the Big House** by New Jersey prisoners

Recently a good deal of literature has been published that documents the real need for correctional reform. Some concerns juvenile corrections; some focuses on adults or the need for overall societal reform.

**Inside Prison U.S.A.** by Tom Merton and Joel Hyams

**Asylums** by Erving Goffman

**Crime in America** by Ramsey Clark

**Kind and Usual Punishment** by Jessica Mitford

**Children in Trouble** by Howard James

**Throwaway Children** by Lisa Aversa Richette

**No One Will Listen** by Lois G. Forer

**The Crime of Punishment** by Karl Menninger

## GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

The U.S. Government Printing Office puts out a series of publications that are useful in facilitating the understanding of recent changes in the field of corrections. In 1968 the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice published a report that has an integrated volume entitled *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society* and a series of supplemental task force reports in all areas of the criminal justice system. The reports are:

- "The Police"**
- "The Courts"**
- "Corrections"**
- "Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime"**
- "Organized Crime"**
- "Science and Technology"**
- "Assessment of Crime"**
- "Narcotics and Drugs"**
- "Drunkenness"**

These reports have been updated by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. The National Commission also has an integrated volume and the following series of reports:

- "A National Strategy to Reduce Crime"**
- "Criminal Justice System"**
- "Police"**
- "Courts"**
- "Corrections"**
- "Community Crime Prevention"**
- "Proceedings of the National Conference of Criminal Justice"**

In 1965 the United States Congress penned legislation entitled "The Correctional Rehabilitation Study Act." Resulting from this legislation was a three-year commission entitled the Joint Commission of Correctional Manpower and Training. This Commission compiled a number of reports that are available in a compendium entitled *A Time to Act*. The reports are:

- "Perspectives on Correctional Manpower and Training"**
- "Manpower and Training in Correctional Institutions"**
- "Developing Correctional Administrators"**
- "Differences That Make the Difference"**
- "Targets for In-Service Training"**
- "Research in Correctional Rehabilitation"**
- "Offenders as a Correctional Manpower Resource"**
- "Criminology and Corrections Programs"**
- "The Public Looks at Crime and Corrections"**
- "Corrections 1968: A Climate for Change"**
- "Volunteers Look at Corrections"**
- "The Future of the Juvenile Court: Implications for Correctional Manpower and Training"**

**"The University and Corrections: Potential for Collaborative Relationships"**  
**"The Legal Challenge to Corrections: Implications for Manpower and Training"**

These materials can be obtained from the American Correctional Association, 4321 Hartwick Rd., College Park, Maryland 20740. For information more pertinent to juvenile corrections, one should contact the Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration, c/o the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 330 Independence Ave., Washington, D.C. 20201. Other relevant literature can be obtained through the National Institute of Crime and Delinquency, NCCD Center, Paramus, New Jersey 07652.

## **PROGRAM RESOURCES**

Readers who are interested in obtaining more detailed information on programs mentioned in the foregoing articles are referred to these sources: For details about the National Campaign Against Prisons, directed by John O. Boone, write to NCAP, 155 Tremont St., Boston, Massachusetts 02107. Copies of the NewGate evaluation discussed by Ray Allen may be obtained from Keith Baker, Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 330 Independence Ave., Washington, D.C. 20201. For information about the New Careers Development Program described by J. Douglas Grant, contact Salim Shah, c/o Crime and Delinquency Section, National Institute of Mental Health, 5600 Fishers La., Rockville, Maryland 20852. Additional details about the diversion programs described by Frank Jasmine may be obtained from the National Pretrial Intervention Center, American Bar Association, 1705 DeSales St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

*Compiled by Janice M. Gamache  
Administrative Assistant in the Model Education Program at Berkshire*

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**As I experienced the long and difficult task of trying to convince area employers to hire felons who were still in jail, I began to identify with the difficulties offenders have in finding employment. Without at first realizing it, I was making changes in my attitudes and actually becoming defensive concerning the welfare of inmates who, if given the opportunity, could make excellent employees. Over the years, the work release program became an outstanding success in that it provided support money for prisoners' families as well as permitting men to accumulate funds for release purposes. I had certainly come a long way from my days as a hard-nosed policeman and tough correctional officer.—Correctional officer**

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# Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

*Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006.*

**Schizophrenia as a Life Style** by Arthur Burton, Juan J. Lopez-Ibor, and Werner M. Mendel. Springer Publishing Co., Inc., 200 Park Ave. South, New York 10003. 1974. 160 pp. \$8.50.

Schizophrenia covers such a multitude of syndromes that its treatment, whether in books or in practice, tends to mimic the disease (if disease it is). Three unsynthesized essays are here presented, each entirely different from the others. Burton's is longest, reviewing numerous definitions of schizophrenia, delineating this "life style," and outlining its psychotherapy. Lopez-Ibor departs as well from the simplistic Kraepelinian categories but ends up in a morass of complexities. Mendel offers various treatment models; the best of the book, however, may be his eight pages of direct quotes from schizophrenic patients—agony and tragedy, but poetry.

**Social Work Practice: Model and Method** by Allen Pincus and Anne Minahan. F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 401 W. Irving Park Rd., Itasca, Illinois 60143. 1973. 355 pp. \$8.00.

Since social work and counseling are siblings under the skin, the literature of one should be "an open book" to the other. P&G'ers who open this book will find some familiar content together with new perspectives and practices. Social work is seen as "planned change," due consideration given the "ethical ambiguities of the change agent role," one dilemma involving social workers' function "as agents of social control." Specific skills are delineated, with the aid of three case studies from other sources. Additional sources of social work theories and techniques are reflected by the bibliography and two indexes.

**Scientific and Technical Careers: Factors Influencing Development during the Educational Years** by Philip R. Rever. American College Testing Program, P.O. Box 168, Iowa City, Iowa 52240. 1973. 198 pp. \$3.00 paperback.

Prepared for the National Science Foundation, "this report is a review and synthesis of research on correlates of scientific and technical career choices." First reviewed are "stimulus variables" such as social class, racial and ethnic background, peer groups, religion, and geographic influences. "Response variables" reviewed include achievement patterns, personality development, and interests (expressed, tested, manifested, and inventoried). The final chapter, "Synthesis," brings together by educational level various stimulus-response interactions and puts forth cogent conclusions and recommendations.

**Science as a Career Choice: Theoretical and Empirical Studies** edited by Bernice T. Elduson and Linda Beckman. Russell Sage Foundation, 230 Park Ave., New York 10017. 1973. 735 pp. \$25.00.

Big and heavy are this book and its contents, the wide scope transcending science and offering implications for other career choices, the weighty (over eighty) articles demanding attentive reading. Examined are a variety of career choice variables, the mechanism of career choice, and numerous aspects of professional roles. Creativity is a strong thread tying together much of the material. Role conflicts on and off the job are treated, one article presenting "Lifetime Worry Patterns of American Psychologists." The authors include many notables. The editors contribute introductory and interstitial stuffing, in addition to several meaty articles by Elduson.

**Project Focus: A Forecast Study of Community Colleges** by Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr. McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10020. 1973. 239 pp. \$9.50. **Organizing for Change: New Priorities for Community Colleges** by David S. Bushnell. Same publisher. 1973. 237 pp. \$9.50.

Both products of a nationwide study funded by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation and conducted by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, these books differ in the flavor of their reportage. Bushnell's is a technical report of the methodology and findings, with numerous tables and charts; it paints a big picture, however, with chapters on institutional goals, strategies for change, and barriers to change. Gleazer, who spent ten months interviewing students, faculty, administrators, and others around the country, critically covers five "major elements of change": student population, how students are served, organization and governance, financial support, and community relations.

**Principles of Post-Secondary Vocational Education** by Angelo C. Gille, Sr. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1300 Alum Creek Dr., Columbus, Ohio 43218. 1973. 248 pp. \$10.95.

"This work . . . falls within the rubric of career education," proclaims the author's preface, whereas distinctions are needed between career education and vocational/occupational education, the latter pair "used synonymously in this book" and applied to "middle level workers," who fall "between skilled labor and professional jobs." Programs of preparation for such workers—including paraprofessionals—are discussed, the bulk of the book dealing with considerations for the future and emphasizing improvement of programs, particularly through research utilization.

**Home from the War** by Robert Jay Lifton. Simon & Schuster, Inc., 630 Fifth Ave., New York 10020. 1973. 478 pp. \$3.95 paperback.

"Vietnam Veterans: Neither Victims nor Executioners" is the subtitle of this stark social

commentary by a psychiatrist gifted in both mind and heart. Those who can cope with the author's keen cognitions and dismaying delineations will no doubt experience a double catharsis. Lifton describes "rap groups" conducted with Vietnam veterans, numerous flashbacks to inhuman incidents generating humane insights. He spells out implications for a civilized society and for helping professionals.

**Financial Aids for Higher Education: 74-75 Catalog** by Oreon Keeslar. William C. Brown Company, 2460 Kerper Blvd., Dubuque, Iowa 52001. 1974. 629 pp. \$13.95 paperback.

Basically an alphabetic listing of over 2,500 college programs that offer financial assistance, this catalog helps students, parents, and counselors enter the list through a special index of 16 questions identifying those qualified for particular forms of aid: e.g., students interested in certain careers, students whose mothers or fathers are employees or members of certain organizations, students of various races or nationalities. A general index and supplementary information add aid to the aid-seeker.

**Creative Divorce: A New Opportunity for Personal Growth** by Mel Krantzler. M. Evans & Co., Inc., 216 E. 49th St., New York 10017. 1974. 268 pp. \$6.95.

Not a tract—as it may sound—to make divorce attractive, break up marriages, and "free" the partners, this balanced book posits a divorce that has occurred as a possible "beginning of a journey of self-discovery and development. . . ." The literate author presents sensitive vignettes from his professional experience as a divorce adjustment counselor and from his own divorce experience. He combines psychological sophistication and popular appeal in listing various sets of guidelines, e.g., "Avoiding the Nine Emotional Traps of the Past." His divorce may at least have freed him to write this creative book.

# Book Reviews

Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to the Editor, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

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|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| <b>Youth and Work</b> by Joseph A. Mihalka                                               | p. 171 | <b>Mental Tests and Cultural Adaptation</b><br>edited by L. J. Cronbach and P. J. D. Drenth                                                     | p. 176 |
| <b>Student Personnel Work in Urban Colleges</b> by Thomas F. Harrington and contributors | p. 174 | <b>Rehabilitation of the Drug Abuser with Delinquent Behavior</b> by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy                                          | p. 177 |
| <b>Vitalizing Guidance in Urban Schools</b> by Julius Menacker                           | p. 174 | <b>Sexual, Marital, and Familial Relations: Therapeutic Interventions for Professional Helping</b> by Robert Henley Woody and Jane Divita Woody | p. 178 |
| <b>Counseling Women</b> by Barbara Cook and Beverly Stone                                | p. 175 | <b>Volunteerism: An Emerging Profession</b> edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy                                                         | p. 178 |
| <b>Women in Higher Education</b> edited by W. Todd Furniss and Patricia Albjerg Graham   | p. 176 |                                                                                                                                                 |        |

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**Youth and Work** by Joseph A. Mihalka. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1974. 177 pp. \$3.95.

The brief monograph can be a useful medium when the topic addressed is both carefully delineated and of limited scope. A recent addition to Merrill's Counseling Youth Series, *Youth and Work* unfortunately is severely handicapped in its effort to treat such a global topic in a volume of such modest length.

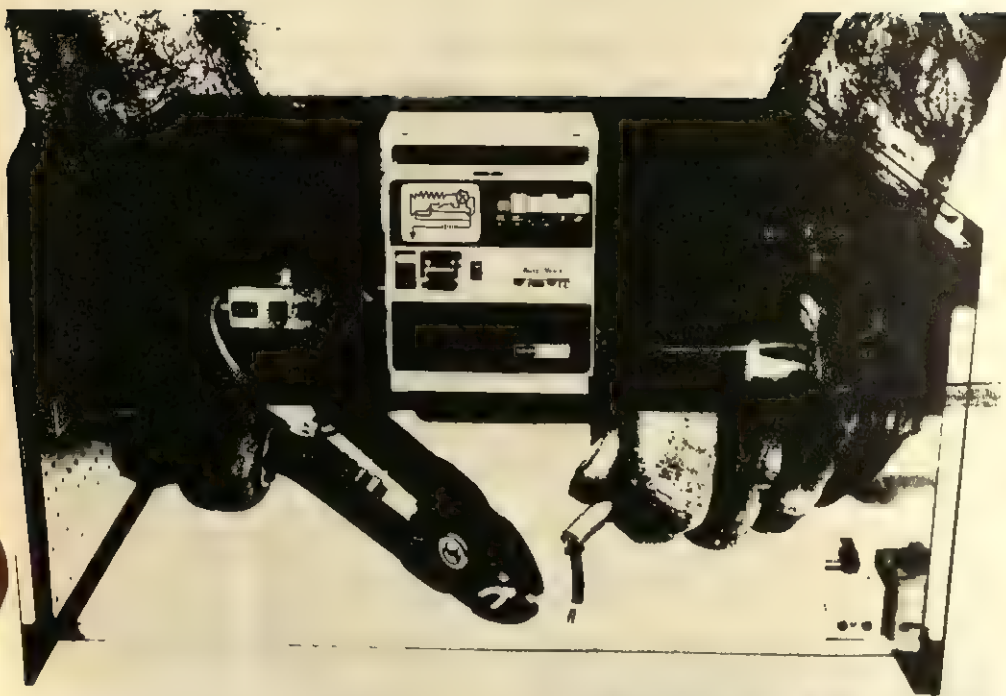
Not intended as a scholarly work, this paperback presents in nine easily read chapters abbreviated overviews of topics ranging asymmetrically from the very general ("Education, Work, and Leisure" and "Vocational Guidance and Counseling") to the curiously specific ("The Job-Hunting Course—An Aid to Placement"). Beginning with a historical review of work in American society, the author provides a once-over-lightly discussion of the impact of technology and automation, changes occurring in education and employment opportunities, the advent of vocational guidance, an advocated job-hunting course, and current theories of career development. A concluding chapter presents reruns of nine well-worn recommendations,

e.g., "Preparation for work must be a basic function of education." Appended are a useful outline for a job-hunting course and a simple, 25-item "job-hunting self-evaluation survey."

The book is a disappointment in its cursory condensation of material better treated and widely available in other sources. In understating the importance and usefulness of existing studies of work undertaken by economists, sociologists, and psychologists, the author seldom wanders away from familiar guidance references. Comparing the chapter bibliographies of this volume with those found in two important recent publications, *Work in America* and Herr's *Vocational Guidance and Human Development*, one finds very little overlap. Although this book might suffice as a primer for the novice, little in it will challenge or enlighten the professional counselor, since its contents are aimed well below the interest levels of most practitioners or even beginning graduate students.

I was puzzled by the author's inattention to or superficial mention of the unique problems and challenges in the career development of girls and women, minorities, delin-





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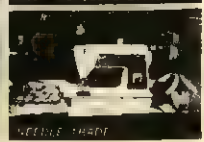
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quents, veterans, and handicapped persons. Sporadic typos and the absence of an index further detract from the volume.

Although this volume may be helpful in acquainting lay audiences with general concepts essential in understanding the career development of young people, the intended professional audience is advised to look elsewhere.—Arthur M. Kroll, *Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey*.

**Student Personnel Work in Urban Colleges** by Thomas F. Harrington and contributors. New York: Intext Educational Publishers, 1974. 328 pp. \$15.00.

As a counselor educator in a large urban institution, most of whose students are living or intend to live urban professional lives, I had high hopes for this book. Not only would it be an up-to-date text to replace Mueller and Williamson, but also it would deal with urban problems, urban institutions, urban students, and urban student personnel work. Chapter 1, "Urban Higher Education," did not disappoint me; here Harrington presents a well-written, interesting, concise chapter. Then my bubble of hope burst.

This book is not unique to urban institutions, nor is it up to date, in my view. The word *urban* was discreetly placed in front of various nouns in the book, but the substance could apply anywhere. Glaringly missing are references to the Carnegie Commission's *Less Time: More Options* and the works of Charles Warnath and K. Patricia Cross. A chapter on "Legal Problems Surrounding the Recommendations of Students" was the only attempt at focusing on recent legal decisions affecting higher education. Where is reference to M. M. Chambers and D. Parker Young? No mention is made of unionization of faculties and student personnel staffs, a burgeoning issue in the urban institutions with which I am familiar. Psychology is the background discipline for counselors in colleges, according to several contributors. What about sociology, economics, political science? I submit that for today's students in today's colleges a counselor who is well grounded in sociology would be a much more helpful person to students and institutions alike. One very useful chapter is the one by James W. Wilson, "Cooperative Education: A Model of Mixing Work and Study," but it just skims the surface.

I still have not found a good textbook for my students. And, from the viewpoint of a professional who attempts to keep up with the literature, *Student Personnel Work in Urban Colleges* is out of touch with the urban college scene of the seventies, represents less than adequate scholarship, and is not a book I would purchase for my professional library.—Joan Henry Kindy, *New York University*.

**Vitalizing Guidance in Urban Schools** by Julius Menacker. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1974. 258 pp. \$5.95.

The author leaves little doubt that he believes current guidance and counseling practices to be archaic and especially inappropriate for urban settings. He clearly defines the issues that need to be faced in urban guidance and then proceeds to present models of ways to meet these issues more effectively.

Basically the approach presented in the text is one of the student advocate, ombudsman, and social change agent. Menacker does a good job of placing schools in a social context. He demonstrates the critical role other segments of society play in a student's life and mandates counselor involvement in all areas on an outreach basis.

The book is quite readable. It includes many case studies designed to document the issues or approaches being explored. However, in his attempt to sell his point of view, Menacker sometimes is uneven in his exploration of the factors to be explored. The frequent use of illustrations from Chicago or New York tends to minimize constructive activities now going on in other urban settings.

It is unfortunate that he fails to recognize the contributions of the Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services and the review of exemplary practices uncovered by Liddle and Ferguson and reported by IRCOPPS. Also, because change agents need an in-group to serve as a security base, it would have been helpful if he had called readers' attention to the National Association of Pupil Personnel Administrators and the publications available from them.

The author ends his text with a plug for a Maoist device that forces "revisionist" bureaucrats, who may be out of touch with the lives of their clients, to change places.<sup>24</sup> Menacker may be right in saying that the only way to reach some counselors is to force them



to experience the lives of others with whom they fail to relate.

The book belongs in the library of professional counselors, regardless of their work settings, because it will challenge their concept of a counselor's role. It will also offer alternate strategies to produce social change.—Walter M. Lifton, *State University of New York at Albany*.

**Counseling Women** by Barbara Cook and Beverly Stone. One volume of "Special Topics in Counseling," Series VII of the *Guidance Monograph Series*, edited by Shelley C. Stone and Bruce Shertzer. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1973. 114 pp. \$2.00.

Cook and Stone have contributed a very readable monograph for counselors interested in developing an awareness of women's issues. If the potential reader is just beginning to explore in depth the implications of counseling women, this slim volume will provide an excellent orientation and a fine starting point.

Rather than dealing with counseling in an isolated fashion, the authors include coverage of its cultural and historical contexts. The book begins with an overview of the history of women's roles in this country and goes on to evaluate the current feminist movement, the role-learning process, and research related to vocational development. Perhaps even more valuable are the rather lengthy bibliography and an appendix that provides an annotated listing of over 50 suggested books and articles. Although a reading list dealing with a current topic necessarily becomes outdated almost immediately, this one might be an eye-opener for people not really familiar with feminist literature.

But if we are to discuss the needs that this monograph might succeed in meeting, we must also identify the needs it cannot meet. This is not the definitive work that feminist counselors have been awaiting. It summarizes the present state of the art, but it does not pretend to make startling forward leaps. It is an introductory survey—not a specialized analysis.

Further, the title *Counseling Women* may well be something of a misnomer. Only one chapter deals directly with that specific topic, and those 27 pages are devoted primarily to recommendations concerning guidance programming and institutional settings. The

## Acting-In

Howard A. Blatner, M.D. The theory and the practical applications of the psychodramatic method: in mental health, industry, with children, and other areas. "Outstanding ... instructive."—*Scholastic Teacher*. 1973, 160 pp., illus., \$5.25

## Birth Control and Unmarried Young Women

Constance A. Lindemann. For counselors: needed information concerning the prevention of unwanted pregnancies among unmarried girls and young women, based on research at UCLA's School of Public Health. *Just published*, 123 pp., \$6.75

## Love, Sex, and Marriage Through the Ages

Bernard I. Murstein. Marital and sexual practices—from the ancient Hebrews to today's communes. Dr. Murstein is a prominent psychologist and authority on marriage and the family. *Just published*, 640 pp., illus., \$16.95

## Schizophrenia As A Life Style

Arthur Burton et al. A book within the new radical psychiatry. It views schizophrenia as amenable to change and offers a theory concerning it that may well serve as a basis for treatment. 1974, 189 pp., \$8.50

## Getting Acquainted with Psychology

Patricia A. Smith. To help students gain a basic understanding of psychology, this book features a unique series of Self-Involvement Exercises centered on social roles, career choices, and personal concerns. 1974, 192 pp., \$5.95

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recommendations, by the way, are well thought out, rational, and, in my opinion, totally realistic.—*Judith A. Lewis, Loyola University of Chicago.*

**Women in Higher Education** edited by W. Todd Furniss and Patricia Albjerg Graham. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1974. 336 pp. \$10.00.

Most of the 39 articles in this volume were originally presented at the 1972 meetings of the American Council on Education. As the editors indicate, the unanimous theme is that discrimination against women exists at all levels in higher education, that it is wrong, and that it must be corrected. (In addition, it is illegal!) A major purpose in this publication is to provide a sound ideological base for the desirability of change so as to allow a shift in focus to the technical aspects of effecting necessary changes in the status of women.

As might be expected, the papers vary considerably in their length, purpose, and overall quality; although almost all contain suggestions for action, some are better than others at explicating the issues that underlie or that may constrain such action. The chapters on women's studies (Barbara Sicherman), "Justice as Fairness" (McGeorge Bundy), and issues of equality and equity (Mason Gross) are particularly helpful in clarifying the contexts in which decisions about adequate compensation for past or continuing discrimination must be made. The excellent reviews of relevant research on characteristics and special needs of women students (K. Patricia Cross), professional women in higher education (Juanita Kreps), and graduate education for women (Mina Rees) provide a sound factual base for countering traditional arguments in support of the status quo. Some of the other articles, while more anecdotal or case-oriented, are also useful in focusing one's thinking about maternity leave policies, day care services, alternative patterns for meeting degree requirements, and implementation of affirmative action programs.

One of the most thought-provoking papers is Martha Rumberger's "The Great Quota Debate and Other Issues in Affirmative Action," simply because she calls attention to the problem of criteria used in deciding whether or not discrimination has occurred and clearly defines the difference between non-

discrimination and affirmative action. As is true of some of the other contributors, she is concerned over the slowness of universities to respond to the problem, but she also recognizes that some of the firmly entrenched policies (such as the priority of research over teaching) that have tended to discriminate against many women must be reevaluated in and of themselves. Many policy changes could lead to a greater openness within the system for both men and women.

While this book is primarily addressed to those involved in all aspects of higher education, it should also be read by those who are counseling high school girls about their future options and potential obstacles in college and beyond.—*Anne Constantinople, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.*

**Mental Tests and Cultural Adaptation** edited by L. J. Cronbach and P. J. D. Drenth. The Hague, the Netherlands: Mouton Publishers, 1972. 495 pp. \$16.53 hardbound; \$12.20 paperback.

Are IQ tests dead? Hardly; here is a report that suggests they are alive and well, living in Istanbul under an assumed name: "mental tests."

This is an excellent book about intellectual measures. It is timely, readable, concerned with important issues, and, considering that it is a conference report, first-rate in its scholarlyness. As anyone who has ever gone to an international meeting knows, usually nothing tangible results because of the problems of language differences, travel fatigue, and a variety of cultural shocks. This conference, which was jointly sponsored by NATO and the Turkish Scientific and Technical Research Council, was an exception; those responsible for this book can take considerable pride in it.

The coverage of the 50 chapters, while focusing on mental tests, is diverse. The chapters range from Drenth's (from Holland) stimulating paper, "Implications of Testing for Individual and Society," through Reuning's (South Africa) fascinating report, "Psychological Studies of Kalahari Bushmen," to Belbin and Belbin's (England) exceedingly practical study, "The Abilities and Problems of Immigrants in Learning to Drive Busses."

The range of samples studied for various reasons is awesome and includes Argentinian

# Women in Higher Education

Edited by W. Todd Furniss, Patricia A. Graham

Discrimination against women in higher education exists and must be eliminated, according to 38 leaders in education, feminism, foundations, law, and government. Their analyses, suggestions, collected in **WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION**, establish a sound conceptual basis for removing prejudice and extending opportunities in academe to women. \$10.00



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mental patients, diamond mine workers, university students from Lagos, Botswana school children, U.S. Navy recruits, a cross section of Iraqi adults, Finnish school children living above the Arctic Circle, British twins, Congolese first grade teachers, and "a random sample of 199 Ss obtained by area sampling from the domain of Chief Nelwomondo."

The last chapter, by Cronbach and Drenth, sums up both the conference and where the world is right now in its thinking about mental testing. I highly recommend it to any thoughtful person working with mental tests.

APGA members traveling abroad should browse through this book before going, both because it gives a panoramic view of testing throughout the world (at least the NATO-friendly world) and because it will cure any parochial notion that America is the sole possessor of excellence in psychological testing.—David P. Campbell, *Center for Creative Leadership, Greensboro, North Carolina.*

**Rehabilitation of the Drug Abuser with Delinquent Behavior** by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 195 pp. \$9.75.

Rehabilitating any drug abuser, much less one with delinquent behavior, is an extremely difficult task. It was with eagerness, then, that I set out to review this book, hoping to discover something I could use in my counseling and training. Unfortunately, the title of the

book is misleading. The subtitle, "Case Studies and Rehabilitation Approaches in Drug Abuse and Delinquency," is at least partially correct. Twenty-seven cases are presented—but only one rehabilitation approach. The SEED, a comprehensive program in Fort Lauderdale, Florida, is given only eight pages.

The 27 cases reported are typical of those one would find in a vocational rehabilitation agency, but they cannot be considered case studies, since a case study is an in-depth analysis of the process and outcome of helping. Only the first case is interesting, in that it shows how a person can progress into the drug culture. The authors do tack on a glossary of terms pertaining to drug abuse, which can be obtained through any law enforcement agency.

In the terminology of the drug culture, this is a jive (worthless) book. If you insist on buying this book, you would be shucking (wasting time), because it doesn't do anything but lay dead (do nothing). At the price, it's a big rip-off. The authors have tried to run a string (do a con) on a subject that demands serious attention and consummate skills from counselors. If you really want some information about drug programs, ask the National Criminal Justice Reference Service (Washington, D.C. 20530) for *Alternative Programs: A Grapevine Survey*, compiled by Duce Knowles (BNDD-73-8).—Thomas C. Neil, *University of Georgia, Athens.*



**Sexual, Marital, and Familial Relations: Therapeutic Interventions for Professional Helping** by Robert Henley Woody and Jane Divita Woody. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1973. 295 pp. \$11.75.

This book attempts to accomplish much in little space. According to the authors, "The material in this book is intended to provide professional helpers who deal primarily or secondarily with sexual, marital, and familial relations with an academic knowledge of relevant dimensions. . . . The emphasis is on developing a personalized approach to clients via integration of different theories and explication of techniques that can be used."

The authors begin by discussing contemporary sociocultural factors that should influence the decision of a treatment strategy for marital and related problems. What follows is a series of chapters presenting (a) the use of the "facilitative conditions" to foster communications with couples (by Paul G. Schauble); (b) a "psychodynamic" approach to conceptualizing family problems and treatment (by Luciano L'Abate); (c) a "behavioral" approach to the treatment of a variety of marital problems; (d) an examination of the relevance of "human potential groups" for the treatment of said concerns; (e) a brief conclusion summarizing Robert H. Woody's psychobehavioral approach to counseling (as elaborated in an earlier work) and its relevance to marital, sexual, and family concerns.

The chapters are so disparate that general reactions to the book are at times inapplicable to separate chapters. The strength of the book resides in the presentation of a variety of modes for treating sexual, marital, and familial problems. The idea of integrating different approaches according to the needs of each helpee is a noble one, and that *idea* permeates the book. Unfortunately, the book does little to help the practitioner decide on what approach to use under what conditions. We wish this book had at least employed a common set of criteria against which each approach could be evaluated. With few exceptions (e.g., L'Abate's formulation), the chapters fail to explicate the notions of functioning and dysfunctioning that techniques are tied to. It is as if the techniques come first, and the problems they presumably are generated by get tacked on as an afterthought. Finally, this book is too ambitious, such that it contains little depth.

To whom might this book be helpful? Notwithstanding our criticisms, we feel that beginning students in the areas of marital/couples/family counseling might profit from getting in touch with the variety of potential treatment modes for their clients—using the book as a supplement to more substantive writings.—*Charles J. Gelso and Amy Bookman, University of Maryland, College Park.*

**Volunteerism: An Emerging Profession** edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 199 pp. \$9.75.

This collection of essays provides an excellent and comprehensive view of volunteerism in America. It will serve as a useful reference for counselors wishing to familiarize their clients with a range of voluntary activities as well as a handbook for those who coordinate and supervise volunteer programs in schools or community agencies.

The futuristic tone of the book is set in the foreword, written by Mrs. George Romney. The remainder of the book is divided into three parts. In Part 1 the editors present an overview of types of volunteers and examples of programs staffed by volunteers. Included also in this section are a history of federal volunteer programs and a description of ACTION, the umbrella organization for the Peace Corps, VISTA, the Older Americans Program, and others.

The first two chapters in Part 2 provide a cookbook approach to the recruitment, training, and supervision of volunteers. The chapters are at times obvious and repetitive, but they contribute to the thoroughness of the entire book. The next chapter describes the role of the coordinator of volunteer services and catalogs some issues relevant for volunteers in such areas as ecology, housing, employment, and corrections. The final chapter in Part 2 presents several case studies in community conflict and reconciliation, describing an advocacy role for the volunteer that goes beyond the more traditional one of providing direct service.

The remainder of the book serves both an integrative and a futuristic function. In the first chapter David Horton Smith summarizes the types of volunteerism discussed in earlier chapters and then describes recent developments in voluntary action research.

He outlines several organizations that have been established to coordinate research, provide consultation, and disseminate program information. These include the Center for a Voluntary Society and the National Center for Voluntary Action, which are cooperating in the development and operation of VOL-INFLO, an information collection and dissemination system for all voluntary action.

The concluding chapter pinpoints several important philosophical and political issues for the future. First, voluntary action programs can no longer rely on white, middle-

class housewives to fill their ranks but must involve older and younger people in both direct service and decision-making or advocacy roles. Second, voluntary action can be seen as an opportunity for career exploration as well as a vehicle for social change.

With 50 million Americans involved in 5 million voluntary groups, it becomes impossible to dismiss voluntary activity as trivial, nonessential, or diversionary. This book provides a useful body of knowledge about an emerging profession.—*Marylou Butler Kincaid, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.*

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# Guidelines for Authors

The *Personnel and Guidance Journal* invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) current professional and scientific issues, (b) new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners.

All material should aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners. For a detailed description of stylistic and other requirements, authors are referred to Judy Wall's article, "Getting into Print in P&G: How It's Done," in the May 1974 issue of P&G. Following are guidelines for submitting a manuscript.

## REQUIREMENTS

1. Send the *original* and two *clear* copies. Original should be typed on 8½ x 11 nontranslucent white bond.
2. Double-space *everything*, including references, quotations, tables, and figures. Leave *extra* space above and below subheads.
3. Leave generous margins (at least an inch all around) on each page.
4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.
5. Place references, each table, and each figure on pages separate from the text.
6. Place authors' names, positions, titles, places of employment, and mailing addresses on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.
7. For arrangement and form of references, subheads, tables, etc., see a recent issue of P&G. Also, please note that we do not use the generic male pronoun or other sexist terminology. (A valuable resource for authors, particularly in regard to references, is the publication manual of the American Psychological Association. Ordering information can be obtained from APA, 1200 17th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.)
8. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.
9. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

*Note:* Authors bear full responsibility for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures. These should be complete and correct in manuscript to avoid the cost of making changes on the galley proofs, as these costs may be charged to the author.

## TYPES OF ARTICLES

1. *Full-length articles.* Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of double-spaced typewritten copy *including* references, tables, and figures). Include a capsule statement of not more than 100 words with each copy of the manuscript; this statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should appear on a page separate from the text. Article titles should not exceed 50 letters and spaces.
2. *In the Field articles.* Manuscripts should not exceed 2,000 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, or techniques.
3. *Dialogues.* Dialogues should follow the length requirements of full-length articles. They should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted for publication.
4. *Poems.* Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors.
5. *Feedback.* Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged on receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Generally, two to three months elapse between acknowledgement of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition. On publication, each author (the senior author in case of multiple authorship) will receive 10 copies of the journal. Poetry contributors will receive 5 copies of the journal.





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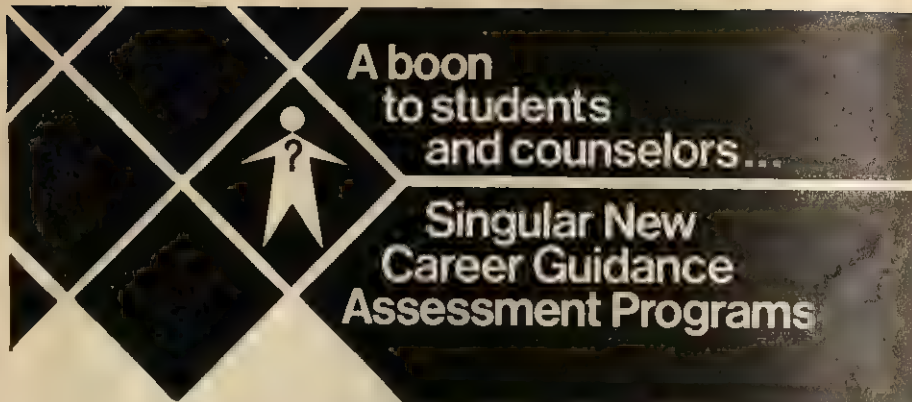
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# The Personnel and Guidance Journal

volume 53

number 3

november 1974

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through risk . . . irrational  
self-censure . . . a practical  
research technique . . .  
horoscopes for counselors

## In the Field:

faculty and career advising  
. . . a view from Lagos . . . a  
high school guidance center



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**Indexing:** The JOURNAL's annual index is published in the June issue. The JOURNAL is listed in *Education Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *College Student Personnel Abstracts*, *Sociology of Education Abstracts*, *Personnel Literature*, *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, *Mental Health Book Review Index*, *Poverty and Human Resources*, *Exceptional Child Education Abstracts*, and *Employment Relations Abstracts*. Book reviews are indexed in *Book Review Index*.

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Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered, U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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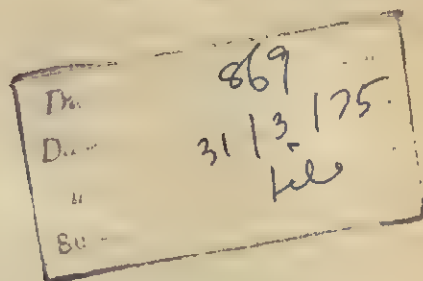
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Volume 53, Number 3, November 1974



## ARTICLES

- Toward Professional Commitment through Risking and Sharing ..... 187  
*Edwin R. Gerler, Jr.* .....
- Irrational Self-Censure: The Problem and Its Correction ..... 193  
*Emanuel M. Berger* .....
- Research Techniques for Counselors: The Multiple Baseline ..... 200  
*Jerry A. Schmidt* .....
- Tomorrow's Horoscope for Today's Counselor Types ..... 208  
*Elliott Mozée* .....

## IN THE FIELD

- Training Faculty to Do Career Advising ..... 214  
*Beverly Prosser Gelwick* .....
- Crossing Cultural Barriers: A View from Lagos ..... 217  
*Ellen F. Pulleyblank* .....
- A Guidance Center Provides Time to Counsel ..... 221  
*Charles O. Richards* .....

## POEMS

- With Cautious Understanding ..... 192  
*Samuel T. Gladding* .....
- They Come Armed ..... 199  
*Joseph E. Del Giorno* .....
- For Me . . . From Us ..... 207  
*John Thomas Nickens* .....

## DEPARTMENTS

- Feedback ..... 182
- Editorial ..... 186
- Research in Counseling ..... 228
- Etcetera ..... 232
- Book Reviews ..... 236
- Guidelines for Authors ..... 244

# Feedback

*Letters for Feedback should be under 300 words. Those selected for publication may be edited or abridged by the Journal staff.*

## The Journal as Ego Ideal

During the past few years, Feedback has carried the continuing debate of whether the P&G JOURNAL should revert to its earlier form of emphasizing research studies or continue in the new direction of serving practitioners by publishing discussions of important issues and practices.

Although I felt at first that the JOURNAL ought to continue its focus on research studies, I have gradually become convinced that small, abstract, "scientific" studies do not relate to our guidance profession, regardless of how scientifically respectable such articles may be.

Your June 1974 issue had so much of practical value to me in my work and stimulated my thinking about issues I have been involved with on a day-to-day basis to such an extent that I have abandoned my desire for a research P&G and strongly support your conception of a practitioner's P&G. I think a professional journal not only reflects readers' and editors' interests but also serves as a forum for professional role development, a kind of professional ego ideal.

A journal provides its readership with an image of what its profession considers to be its mission and its mode of relating to social needs. No longer can we assume a stance of isolated scientists searching for abstract truths, when our clients are clearly in need of effective methods that will help them develop their potentials for living.

The practitioner's P&G stimulates and encourages its readership to reach out beyond little studies to the important social issues in our communities. The JOURNAL's poetry and prose creatively integrate the emotions and intellect to help individuals and groups become more fully human.

MICHAEL MILLER  
Queensborough Community College  
CUNY  
Bayside, New York

## On Licensing Legislation

We applaud Sweeney and Sturdevant's recent article, "Licensure in the Helping Professions: Anatomy of an Issue," in the May 1974 issue. For years the New York State Personnel and Guidance Association has recommended legislation licensing vocational, rehabilitation, employment, and educational counselors in cooperation with other behavioral scientists. Our objective has not been to restrict the use of psychology but to give the public guidelines to better understand counseling services and to create a team approach with those who work in the behavioral sciences.

This type of legislation has been recommended by our membership partially in response to the demands for more and better-qualified counselors in the community and also as a means of protecting the consumer and providing him the opportunity to evaluate the counseling service offered.

Our research in this area shows that the problems involving licensing are much more complex and could very well be the subject matter for an entire APGA journal. For example, consider the following areas that need to be discussed before counselors can fully understand the implications of licensing.

1. How will licensing affect school counselor certification?
2. What type of licensing are we considering: that which simply licenses the title or that which is explicit in its description of the role of the counselor? Are we ready and really willing to tackle the latter?

3. Does licensing really ensure the protection of privileged communication for the *client*? (Authors please note—the counselor *does not* get privileged communication; it is the client who receives the protection.) As Sweeney and Sturdevant comment, 16 states have legislation affording privileged communication to the *students* of school counselors. Has any research shown how this has





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improved or changed the ability to counsel students? A quick review of this legislation shows that most of the bills are really token legislation. They provide limited privilege and still require the counselor to report student communications to *some* responsible authority.

4. How will licensing accommodate the conflict between those psychologists and counselors who practice the "medical model" of psychology (the need to diagnose and treat the client), as contrasted to those who support the "sociopsychological model" (greater use of community interdependency) as the approach most helpful to people? Can these concerns be integrated into one licensing bill?

5. Will licensing provide for horizontal and vertical mobility and continuity in the various psychological, counseling, and mental health careers?

These are only a few of the important questions that must be explored. The answers will be important only if they are the outgrowth of a true dialogue between all professionals interested in the helping professions.

To this end, the New York State Personnel and Guidance Association has agreed via its goals for 1974-1975 to devote two regional

workshops to study the issue of professional licensing for counselors and to work closely with our legislators. We welcome New Yorkers and other APGA members to join with us in this venture.

EUGENE J. ZOLA  
Executive Director  
New York State Personnel and  
Guidance Association, Inc.

### **Attract Now, Counsel Later**

I wish the authors of "Admissions Counselors or Recruiters?" (April 1974 P&G) had stressed a match between student and institution as much as they did between recruiter and institution. The "attract now and counsel later" method they propose is unethical and will result in needless application paper work for students and high school counselors at inappropriate institutions.

A college admissions counselor should know his or her institution well enough to know when a student would be best advised to pursue certain goals elsewhere.

JEAN WARFORD  
University of Wisconsin—Green Bay

### **Special Issue Coming Next Month:**

## **Paras, Peers, and Pros**

The December issue of P&G looks at one of the most important developments in our field: the emergence of paraprofessionals as helpers.

Guest edited by Ursula Delworth, one of the country's top authorities on the paraprofessional and new professional movements, this issue contains over a dozen articles on this timely topic, the bulk of the issue devoted to paraprofessional programs and training. Many of the articles have been written by paraprofessionals themselves and take a hard look at the realities of being a para or a peer in a world of pros.

This issue tells how paraprofessionals came into their own in the sixties, where they are in the seventies, and what needs to be done so that they might increase their helping potential in the future—and improve and revitalize counseling and all human services.

The paraprofessional movement can be a shot in the arm for counseling; *Paras, Peers, and Pros* can be a booster for P&G readers.

# FOR US, AIR POWER STARTS WITH BRAIN POWER.

The reason must be obvious. We deal with sophisticated equipment. Just as obviously, we need highly trained and educated personnel to operate it. Consequently, we must—and do—maintain the educational facilities needed to help our people reach their full potential. We believe that the Air Force can only be as good as the people in it.

Right now, you are probably advising a number of intelligent young men and women who could benefit from our philosophy. Perhaps some have set their sights on a particular vocation, but don't know where to get the required training. Others may be thinking about college, but lack the means. Still others may not yet have decided on what they want to do. In any case, if they have potential, you might suggest that they look into what the Air Force has to offer. We have expanded our educational opportunities to the point where we can offer every man and woman we accept a total career education package. It's a package which combines academic and technical training with practical experience. As a preparation for later life, we think it's second to none.

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Southern Association of Colleges and Schools and two are accredited by the North Central Association. These schools have been combined into the new Community College of the Air Force (CCAF). As a result, an airman is awarded credit upon completion of his training, credit which is recorded for him on his own CCAF transcript. It's a valuable post-service document for prospective employers or school registrars.

But the career education opportunities don't end there. We want our men and women to enrich their educational backgrounds. Therefore, we fund up to 75% of the tuition for off-duty courses at local civilian colleges or trade schools. They can even make the best of both possible worlds by enrolling in the Community College of the Air Force curriculum related to their job specialty (CCAF offers over 80 curriculum majors). Then they can combine their accredited Air Force training with off-duty civilian schooling and work towards a CCAF Career Education Certificate, the Air Force version of an Associate in Technology Degree.

In a nutshell, the Air Force has devoted a great deal of effort to creating the finest career education program we know. It gives us a better Air Force. It gives our personnel realistic preparation for lifelong success. And it gives our country better citizens. If your students are interested, suggest that they request more information from any local Air Force recruiting counselor. Or write to: Air Force Educational Affairs, Box A, Randolph AFB, Texas 78148, and we'll be happy to get that information to you.

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# Editorial

## THE JOYS OF BOOK REVIEWING

Have you ever wondered why book reviews sometimes appear in print a year or even two years after the date of publication? Well, sometimes it is because we have to ask three or four different people before we locate one who agrees to do the review, and that takes time. Sometimes it is because after three months the reviewer returns the book with a brief note that says no more than "Sorry, I won't be able to do this review," at which point we have to start searching for another reviewer. Sometimes it is because the review comes in at 800 words when 400 were requested; when it is that much over the requested length, we usually return it to the reviewer. But sometimes even the second version comes in—weeks or months later—still too long by 100 or 200 words. Sometimes, months after a review is due and repeated letters and phone calls to the reviewer have brought nothing except perhaps promises, we ask for the return of the book, and sometimes we can't even get *that*.

But enough—most reviewers do send their reviews on time, within or close to the assigned word limit, and most do a good job of telling our readers in an interesting manner what the book contains that might be of interest and value to them. In those cases we do little except routine copy editing and then send the review to press as quickly as possible. But even at best we need six months from the time we receive a book until the day its review reaches you in print. When reviewers play some of the cute games mentioned above, you can add anywhere from a month to a year to that time.

With books that do not require full review we have no problem at all. I send them to Dan Sinick to be considered for the Etcetera column. Included are books in related fields, collections of reprinted articles, resource materials for counselors, and self-help books. Some five months later you read Dan's thumbnail reviews, which tell you in 100 sprightly words most of what you would want to know about those books.

So there are some joys in book reviewing. We try to spread the joy by not asking any one person to review more than once a year. Some people never get asked more than once, such as the person who sent in a review that was 1,100 words long (when we'd requested 400) and then six months later came through with a revision that was still 600 words long, despite the fact that it was a relatively short book in which the reviewer could find little of value for counselors! However, such characters are more than balanced by those nice people who return the book promptly with a well-documented explanation of their recommendation that it not be reviewed in P&G.

By keeping reviews relatively short, and by keeping after reviewers, we are able to bring you some 150 to 180 reviews each year, most of them within six to eight months of the day we receive the book from the publisher. Which may not be joy, but it's a pretty satisfying experience. ■ LG

# toward professional commitment through risking and sharing

Some counselors feel deeply committed to their profession. Those with several years of professional experience, however, would probably admit that they have lost some of the commitment they experienced during their early years in the field, and a few may even admit that they never have felt a strong commitment to counseling. As Goldman (1973d) has noted, "We have had a field that was built on sand—too many thousands of people who went into it half-heartedly or with no intention of staying in more than a short time" (p. 23). Insuring that future counselors will be dedicated is a problem primarily confronting counselor educators, but it is more difficult to assign a specific group or agency the responsibility for strengthening the commitment of counselors already in the field. In reality, counselors who see their commitment slipping away would probably be wise to take steps to rededicate themselves instead of looking for an outside agency to assume the responsibility; but because it is not sufficient to merely recommend rededication, this article is intended to give some direction to the efforts of counselors who are seeking to renew their professional commitment.

Beginning counselors often exhibit the kind of excitement and dedication needed by the counseling profession generally. In fact, it is not uncommon for counselors with years of professional experience to shake their heads in disbelief upon seeing the enthusiasm and com-

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*Because many counselors perform tasks that offer little satisfaction, their commitment to the counseling profession is minimal. In this article the author suggests that by taking the risk to implement innovative counseling techniques and by sharing ideas both within and outside the profession, counselors can derive greater satisfaction from their work and consequently experience increased professional commitment.*

mitment commonly displayed by new counselors. This extraordinary dedication, though frequently attributed to naiveté, may be accounted for partially by the unique situation in which most beginning counselors find themselves, a situation that brings together at least two ingredients capable of producing professional satisfaction.

In the first place, new counselors, being somewhat unsure of their ability to

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perform counseling tasks adequately, may be confronted by uncertainties and risks not encountered by more experienced counselors. Moreover, in the process of assuming a first counseling job, the novice is moving outside the familiar confines of graduate school into a radically new environment, where—for simple, practical reasons—listening to the ideas of others as well as sharing untested ideas with colleagues and clients is essential.

Sometimes built into a beginning counselor's position, then, are the elements of risking and sharing, each of which helps to make the counseling profession stimulating and rewarding for the novice. What follows are some suggestions related to taking risks and sharing ideas that can help most counselors derive greater satisfaction from their careers and consequently experience increased professional commitment.

### **TAKING RISKS**

Many individuals have demonstrated that taking risks within the counseling profession can be satisfying. Those, for

example, who have taken the risk of leaving secure jobs to establish support and financial backing for temporarily funded elementary school guidance programs have usually seen gratifying results from their efforts. Among the most gratifying is the current growth of support for elementary school counseling services, clearly illustrated by the report of Pennsylvania's Citizens Commission on Basic Education (Report . . . 1973), which recommended the development of stronger guidance programs in Pennsylvania's elementary schools. As is apparent from this example, risk taking offers rewards to the counseling profession.

Counselors need not, however, abandon secure jobs to know the rewards of taking risks. By merely using new programs in psychological education and career education, counselors risk facing some community opposition; but at the same time they can experience the satisfaction of developing effective procedures to implement the programs. One such procedure consists of carefully selecting individuals within a community to assist in implementing psychological education activities. Some individuals without teaching or counseling backgrounds, for example, can be equipped with the theoretical framework and skills necessary to lead Magic Circles (Bessell & Palomares 1970), a small group technique for aiding the emotional and social growth of children. Similarly, selected persons can be trained to conduct the role-playing and puppet activities of the DUSO programs (Dinkmeyer 1970, 1973), designed basically to improve the self-concept of children. This procedure is rewarding because it builds community support for psychological education activities and brings the activities to large numbers of children.

Equally rewarding procedures can be developed to implement career education. Rehabilitation counselors, community agency counselors, employment



counselors, and school counselors, for instance, can coordinate their efforts by establishing career information centers accessible to citizens of all ages. To produce some of the materials needed for these centers, counselors or assistants trained to conduct interviews could take cameras and videotape equipment into a community to record important aspects of local career opportunities, focusing particularly on the human aspects of each career. A recent institute sponsored by the Central Susquehanna Intermediate Unit, with headquarters in Lewisburg, Pennsylvania, provided instruction for producing these kinds of films and videotapes. One important result of this institute was overwhelming regional support and cooperation for developing career information. Some places of employment, initially reluctant to cooperate in producing career materials, became so interested that they requested and received special showings of films and videotapes. Had it not been for some counseling personnel taking the risk to face the initial opposition, an important source of career information might have remained untapped. In addition, without the risks and the satisfaction that followed, many of the participating counselors would not now feel so strongly committed to the objectives of career education.

Prior to implementing new activities, counselors should get a taste for the risks and rewards involved by exploring professional journals that have a reputation for introducing and critiquing new counseling techniques. Journal articles, for instance, have recently provided counselors an opportunity to examine the many new practices and techniques that constitute psychological education, including values clarification (Simon 1973), achievement motivation (McMullen 1973), the human development program (Palomares & Rubini 1973), and others. Further opportunities for exploration have come in the area of career

education: Agne and Nash (1973), for example, have suggested that counselors become the "humanistic conscience" for the career education movement; and Kehas (1973) has recommended that counselors play a large part in the process of restructuring curriculum around career study.

These innovative practices, though taking counselors a great distance from their early and long-standing roles, can

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revitalize counselors' interest in their profession. At the very least, by accepting the risk of testing new and possibly more effective avenues for meeting client needs, counselors can eliminate some of the boring and useless routine that is sometimes a part of counseling jobs.

### SHARING IDEAS

Most counselors need to increase their professional visibility (Myrick 1973). The days when persons in leadership positions could be expected to completely and accurately publicize counselor needs and goals may have existed once, but those days do not exist now and probably never will again. It should go without saying that the mere existence of the counseling profession is becoming increasingly dependent on the efforts of individual counselors to demonstrate and communicate their worth to administrators, teachers, parents, and especially clients. Simply stated, if counselors expect to be recognized and respected for their ideas and to know the

satisfaction that accompanies recognition, they must share their ideas with others both within and outside the counseling profession.

Opportunities for sharing ideas are frequently provided by professional associations. Many counselors, though, for a variety of reasons, join neither the American Personnel and Guidance Association (Barnette 1973) nor state and local counselor associations, thereby depriving themselves of an excellent chance to share ideas and concerns. One of the most-cited reasons for counselors ignoring professional associations is that such groups do not discuss issues pertinent for practicing counselors. If counselor associations are in fact irrelevant, a major cause is the unwillingness of many counselors to share their feelings within these organizations, despite the fact that counselors expect this kind of sharing from their clients. By neglecting this opportunity to exchange ideas, counselors ignore a major source of strength for eliminating those undesirable and unrewarding job conditions that tend to weaken professional commitment. Members of the American Bar Association and the American Medical Association exhibit the kind of strength that can result from membership in professional organizations (Barnette 1973). It would seem that counselors, more than individuals in most other professions, would recognize the value of affiliation with a group.

Counselor education departments, like professional associations, are often justifiably criticized for not meeting the needs of practicing counselors. This condition exists in part because most practicing counselors come in contact with counselor education departments only to maintain their counseling credentials or to improve their position on a salary schedule. If practitioners were invited, or if they voluntarily made attempts to share their experiences with counselor educators, counselor educa-

tion departments might better meet the needs of practitioners. At the same time, practicing counselors would probably acquire some needed knowledge and motivation to perform counseling tasks with more excitement and dedication.

Guest lecturing in college classes, assisting with workshops, and speaking before community organizations are examples of other ways counselors can share their ideas. A systematic presentation of ideas, whether it takes the form of a classroom lecture or a brief, informal talk before a community organization, occasionally prompts individuals responsible for such presentations to search their experience for activities that have been valuable and rewarding. Simply recalling worthwhile professional experiences can in itself be rewarding, but a good deal of additional satisfaction may come with actually sharing these experiences and observing others discuss, debate, and assimilate the ideas presented.

Making the effort to share ideas or concerns by submitting articles for publication can likewise result in tangible rewards for counselors. Spithill (1973) has commented, "To publish an article is to be thrilled twice: at receipt of the acceptance letter and again upon seeing oneself in print" (p. 38). It might be added that the correspondence received following publication can provide further satisfaction. Countless words have been written recently encouraging counselors to write (Carroll 1972). Goldman (1973a, 1973b, 1973c, 1974) has devoted a number of editorials to describing the kinds of articles needed by the *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL*, namely, descriptions of new ideas and techniques, reviews of research literature, dialogues on controversial topics, and special types of research reports. In spite of the encouragement, few counselors afford themselves the opportunity to know the satisfaction offered by authoring journal articles.

## IN CONCLUSION

Many counselors seem to be comfortable working hard at unproductive and unrewarding tasks that stimulate little professional commitment. Counselors who lack commitment are asking for the kind of trouble that usually takes the form of lost jobs and financial cutbacks. More importantly, these counselors by their example discourage the entry of new talent into the field and thus prevent the growth of the profession. By shifting the focus of their work toward taking risks and sharing ideas, counselors may gain the kind of satisfaction that will result in renewed professional dedication. ■

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## **With Cautious Understanding**

She strung her words out skillfully  
like a craftsman stringing beads,  
Bright,  
round,  
    nice-sounding phrases  
    she linked together before me  
Capturing my dull analytical mind  
in the sparkle of her voice  
    and smoothness of her tongue;  
One by one her feelings came  
not as polished as her words  
    or as pleasing to the ear  
    as her first free-flowing sentence,  
But carefully through the structured hour  
she heard herself  
    a little girl crying  
And with cautions she carried from childhood  
reached out  
    for comfort  
    and not to charm.

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# irrational self-censure: the problem and its correction

*To a high degree, negative evaluation of the self by counseling clients is seen as being the outcome of various kinds of irrational, unreasonable, or illogical thinking. Counseling practice and logical considerations, both based on an analysis of such thinking, suggest principles and points of view that might be taught to students for the purpose of correcting or avoiding such thinking.*

The undoing of irrational kinds of thinking that have led to and that serve to maintain negative evaluations of the self is central to Ellis' psychotherapy (1962). To what extent could we use educational means to help students avoid or correct such thinking about themselves? Williamson recently (1973), and for many years previously, has urged that students be taught to think rationally about personal and social problems. What is being proposed here, in the spirit of the movement of counselors toward psychological education as proposed by Ivey and Alschuler (1973), is that we begin to test the value of such an approach with respect to personal problems. They suggest that counselors try to devise ways to serve more people than are served by traditional one-to-one counseling.

This article presents an analysis of irrational, negative self-evaluation as seen in clients at a university counseling service. The analysis focuses on two kinds of such thinking: either-or thinking and negative attribution. The analysis is followed by a discussion of what has seemed

to be helpful in correcting such thinking in counseling practice and what would be expected to be helpful on logical or a priori grounds, given the analysis of what is wrong with the thinking. Principles derived from these two sources are used to suggest a program of psychological education. The program would be intended to teach students to think logically and reasonably about themselves so that they may correct or avoid irrational, negative self-evaluation.

## EITHER-OR THINKING

This is considered to be the most basic kind of thinking in irrational, negative self-evaluation. In each case people make a negative inference about themselves as a result of not meeting their expectations for themselves, and in each case the expectations are unreasonable, although on different grounds.

### Perfectionistic Ideals

Quite often the expectations are unrealistic because they are perfectionistic. People think in an either-or, absolutist

way about their ideals for themselves and about what it means to realize their ideals. Consider the following ways in which clients have expressed either-or thinking: A successful person accomplishes what he or she tries to do; I did not; therefore I am a failure. A worthwhile person is outstanding in some way; I am not; therefore I am not worthwhile. A really intelligent person (does not make mistakes, is not ignorant, does not do stupid things); I (have made mistakes, am ignorant about some things, have done some stupid things); therefore I am (dumb, stupid, mediocre). My sister is outstanding academically and my brother is talented musically; I am neither; therefore I am a "zero," a nothing. A competent practicum student in (teaching, counseling, social work) should be able to handle any situation that comes up in the practicum; I was not able to do that; therefore I am a poor practicum student.

The first either-or is: Either I am my ideal or I am its opposite (or something else negative such as "mediocre"). The second either-or is: Either I am *perfectly* (successful, outstanding, intelligent, competent) or I am the opposite of my ideal.

### Negative Ideals

Perfectionistic, either-or thinking occurs in relation to what might be called "negative" ideals as well as positive ideals. In such cases people are down on themselves for being what they consider unacceptably jealous, selfish, aggressive, or angry. Such people almost always feel that it is unacceptable to have any degree of the "negative" quality or feeling involved.

### Rigid Ideals

In these cases the ideal does not demand perfection, but it is unrealistic because it assumes that a person should be some particular way to meet the ideal when that is not necessarily so in reality. One

client, for example, thought that she was a "bad" daughter because she was not able to have a good relationship with her mother, one in which she was able to confide in and discuss her problems with her mother. Another client concluded that she was "dumb" because she was not a good conversationalist, but her concept of a good conversationalist was someone who necessarily knew a lot about many subjects.

### NEGATIVE ATTRIBUTIONS

Johnson (1946) used a hypothetical example that probably represents an experience that is rather common to all of us. Hattie Jones meets a friend, Sarah Smith, on the street and says hello to her. Sarah Smith does not turn to look at her, nor does she answer her greeting. Hattie Jones promptly tells herself that Sarah Smith is mad at her.

The general form of this illustration can be considered representative of situations clients describe in which someone's appearance or tone of voice or behavior leads to a negative inference about the self—anywhere from "that person doesn't like me" to "that person wants to poison me." Also, there is usually just one bit of data, as in the illustration, from which the person makes an unreasonable inference about negative attitudes, feelings, or intentions of another toward the self. In one case a student could not help asking herself, "What's wrong with me?" after feeling that a young man had rejected her, even though there was nothing she could point to specifically that supported such an inference. In another case a student was sure his professor did not like him, simply because the professor had seemed to treat him coolly—no other data.

There is another kind of negative attribution that is fairly common among college students, usually those who are having difficulty in developing



confidence in themselves socially. The student will tell about numerous attempts to relate to other people that, the student feels, were failures. The student's inference from the experience is, "What's wrong with me?"

## COUNSELING PRACTICE

The preceding analysis of irrational, negative self-evaluation suggests principles that could be used to correct such thinking. The following descriptions of cases illustrate how the principles have been put into practice and with what apparent effectiveness.

### Either-Or Thinking

To a large extent, counseling practice to correct either-or thinking consists of a kind of "teaching" of certain principles through various means, including direct discourse, following the development of rapport.

A student who said he was a failure because he had not completed a difficult electronics project as quickly as he thought he should apparently profited from things the counselor said about excellence not requiring perfection and mistakes or difficulties not being the same as failure. At a later interview the client himself said that he "had difficulty" hooking up a computer, after first beginning to say that he had been "a failure" in doing that job.

The girl who inferred that she was a "zero" from the fact that her two siblings were outstanding academically and musically was able to modify her inference in a positive way as a result of similar direct discussion. She decided that even though she was not outstanding in any way, there was no reason for her to think she was inferior. The counselor's efforts with this girl centered on two ideas. One was that abilities and talents are a matter of degree, not either-or, and that therefore it did not follow that because she was not outstanding in some ways she was

therefore at the opposite extreme, a "zero." The other was that every person has the potential to develop in many ways other than academically or musically and that there was reason to believe that this girl had the potential for doing well in her professional field but that this was a process that would require more time and experience.

In cases involving negative ideals, the practice generally entails reassuring the client that the degree of a "negative" quality (e.g., selfishness, jealousy, anger, aggressiveness) that the client has shown is normal and acceptable and is not reprehensible. Those persons for whom the abstract concept of "aggressiveness" has a negative connotation need to be reassured that asking for their rights or setting limits on how others may treat them might only be normal and healthy self-assertion.

Practice has at times included procedures other than direct teaching of prin-

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**"People think in an either-or, absolutist way: 'A worthwhile person is outstanding in some way; I am not; therefore I am not worthwhile.'"**

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ciples intended to counteract the either-or thinking. In the case of the girl who thought she had to know a lot about many subjects in order to be a "good conversationalist," the counselor gave a homework assignment. For one week the girl was to listen to the content of the conversations of people she associated with and then report back on what she learned. As the counselor had predicted, the girl discovered that most of the conversations she listened to were about ordinary matters and included lots of opinions and attitudes but very little that depended on special factual knowledge. As

a result, she was able to say she felt better about herself.

In the case of the girl who thought she was a "bad daughter" because she could not confide in her mother, the counselor talked about the limitations in his own relationships to his father and his sons. The girl said this was very helpful. The

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counselor also encouraged the client to find out more about her peers' relationships with their mothers. She discovered that, whereas some girls had a better relationship with their mothers than she did, others had relationships that were no better—or were even worse. As a result, she felt better about herself in relation to her mother, and she could see that her not confiding in her mother was not necessarily a reflection on her and also that she was expecting too much of herself.

#### **Negative Attributions**

Logical principles concerning valid inference, probability, and the weight of evidence have been used to some degree in cases of negative attribution. In these cases it is not a matter of always being able to exclude the negative inference as definitely being invalid; rather the counselor tries to establish the relative probability of a negative inference as compared with other usually equal or more probable explanations that do not lead to a negative inference about the self. The best that can be said for such practice is that some of the more normal, not-so-paranoid clients would concede that their negative inference was not a neces-

sary one, nor even the most probable one, given the facts in the case.

#### **PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION**

The foregoing analysis of irrational, negative self-evaluation and the description of counseling practice for correcting such thinking suggest various ideas for a program of psychological education.

##### **Direct Teaching**

Direct discourse, aided by examples from cases, could be used to teach students the principles that have been described here. Also, our society in many ways tells our youngsters that they should be competent, intelligent, successful, responsible, unselfish, and so on. Psychological education would teach them that they need not realize any of these positive qualities absolutely; that it is not in the nature of human beings to realize any such qualities absolutely; that it is normal for human beings to feel some degree of anxiety, fear, perplexity, or hostility; that it is normal to make some mistakes or be inefficient at times; and that having such limitations is human and normal and not a basis for self-condemnation.

An interesting side point here is that although it seems reasonable to assume that most psychotherapists and personality theorists would agree that all absolutist ideals are unrealistic, very few are explicit about this. In two collections that refer to or contain the contributions of many authors concerning "normality" (Offer & Sabshin 1966) and "the healthy personality" (Whiteley 1973), most of the writers emphasize only the positive qualities they see as constituting psychological health and say nothing about what limitations would still be consistent with being psychologically healthy. This is a very significant omission, since so many people need to learn that absolutist ideals are not realistic and so few experts tell them this.

## Language

A special unit on language could tie into this process. It would be pointed out that absolutist thinking may result from the language we use to describe human qualities. The abstract adjectives we use to describe others or ourselves (intelligent, competent, good, etc.) seem to imply an absoluteness we may not even intend. There is nothing built into the words that would convey the degree of a quality. Nor is there anything that would communicate the degree of the quality—short of perfection—that would still be considered acceptable, better than average, or even excellent, despite imperfection.

With respect to "negative ideals," a special difficulty might be that the words and their connotations tend to be negatively loaded and identified with their "bad" extreme rather than being seen as existing on a continuum. We would probably do well to find neutral substitutes that would accommodate a continuum that included "too little," "acceptable," and "too much": "self-interest" instead of selfishness; "self-assertiveness" instead of aggressiveness. It is more difficult, certainly, to find a neutral substitute for "jealousy"; as a beginning, the term "exclusivity" is suggested as representing a continuum of the degree of physical, social, and emotional exclusiveness that is expected in a relationship.

## Bibliotherapy

A major purpose of bibliotherapy would be to help students understand that certain kinds of limitations are still consistent with psychological health or normality and that certain limitations are even consistent with excellence or greatness. The procedure would need to be individualized, since perceptions of excellence and greatness vary so much among individuals. There would also be the task of finding either biographies or autobiographies that do not attempt to hide

the struggles, the mistakes, the human limitations of persons regarded as outstanding.

Readings could include a biography of Abraham Lincoln that tells of the "failures" in his early life; an article by Shoben (1957), which says explicitly that being psychologically healthy does not require that we realize positive ideals absolutely; a book by Viscott (1972), which would reassure would-be psychiatrists (and perhaps others intending to go into social service fields) that they need not be perfectly knowledgeable and competent as students in order to become effective in helping people; or a passage from Tolstoi's *Resurrection* (1963), which says that people are never absolutely the way we describe them—good or bad, clever or stupid, and so forth.

## Logic

Logic has been described as "the science of valid inference" (Cohen & Nagel 1934) and, more recently, as "the science of necessary inference" (Quine 1965). This being the case, logic is then relevant to all the kinds of negative self-evaluation that have been described here, since they all involve invalid or questionable inferences. The task of psychological education in the present context would be to help students make logic relevant to the way they think when they evaluate themselves and to the way they think about how others feel about them.

A first suggestion is that we translate the technical language of logic into an equivalent English that is easily understood. Examples of such translations are presented in the next paragraph for two kinds of logical principles, one concerning the nature of logical proof, the other concerning probability. The basis for the translation is a book on traditional logic (Cohen & Nagel 1934).

First, what logicians say about the requirements of logical proof becomes instead a principle that states the require-



ments for "true conclusions": A conclusion is definitely true only when the facts that lead to the conclusion are definitely true, and it is impossible for the conclusion from these facts to be false. Second, a specific principle concerning probable inference, as translated, becomes: A conclusion is probable to the extent that it is generally true that the conclusion drawn from the given facts is a correct one.

If students were trained from high school on to ask the questions implied by these principles, it seems likely that they would make fewer invalid negative self-evaluations based on questionable premises and would less often conclude on improbable grounds that others have negative feelings toward them.

## CONCLUSION

Obviously, this is only a beginning. A next logical step would be the development of a program of psychological education in schools and colleges, based on the principles that have been described. To what extent such programs would be presented independently or would be integrated into already existing programs of psychological education would depend on the accumulation of evidence as to the effectiveness of various elements of the programs in accomplishing their purposes.

Finally, there is no assumption that mental health problems would be eliminated if such programs were successful.

However, if we deliberately focus on teaching people how to avoid irrational, negative conclusions about themselves, we should be taking a big step toward reducing the amount of intrapersonal and interpersonal stress in our society. ■

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## They Come Armed

They come armed.

Armed with the memory of their own negative experiences—

A generation past—remembered vividly.

Armed with what they saw on television just the other night  
and what they heard on that audience-participation-call-up-and-gripe radio show  
And . . . they read it in the *Times*, didn't they?

They come armed.

They know how cold, inhuman, inflexible we are.

Professor Blank said it in his best-selling book *What's Wrong with Our Schools*,  
And didn't that blue-ribbon commission reaffirm what everyone already knew?

They come armed.

Armed with the word from that final and unimpeachable source,  
Didn't he, *himself*, come home and say in his own words, "That place is a prison!"

Now they are here, in your office fully armed.

Everything for them depends on what happens to him, his grades, his future,  
his very life.

Forget that he questioned the legitimacy of his teacher's forebears.

Forget that he hasn't cracked a book since sixth grade.

That teacher *is* a bastard.

School *is* boring.

Everyone knows . . . *it isn't even relevant.*

They're armed and they're no longer quietly desperate.

Now they're hostilely desperate.

And they are here, in your office,

and you'd better fix things.

After all, by God, you *are* his counselor.

JOSEPH E. DEL GIORNO  
Oceanside High School, Oceanside, New York

# research techniques for counselors: the multiple baseline

JERRY A. SCHMIDT

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*Practitioners in counseling must also be applied researchers. Counselors can no longer rely on intuition, personal opinion, or statistical studies to determine their effectiveness. In this article multiple baseline techniques are offered as applied research strategies for counselors who wish to evaluate the effects of the techniques they are using.*

One of the most frustrating aspects of our jobs as counselors is that we often do not know when—or if—our clients have changed. Even when we do observe a change, we must then face the perhaps equally frustrating issue of whether our contact with the client had any effect in the change. And even if we feel that we did play a part in the change, we wonder exactly what it was we did that helped effect that change. Broadly speaking, we are always asking ourselves what counseling techniques or methods actually cause inner or outer behavior to change. What we want to know is: Are counselors and their bag of skills of any use?

We counselors, therapists, and analysts have used all kinds of rationales to justify our existence. We have argued that when a client does not move, work, or change, the client is resistant or defensive. We have used controlled studies to show that treatment actually is effective (Meltzoff & Kornreich 1970; Stollak, Guernsey & Rothberg 1966). However, as Campbell and Stanley (1963) have said, there are many factors jeopardizing internal and external validity in such studies. In fact, out of sixteen possible research designs, only one cited by Campbell and Stanley is believed to control for all extraneous factors—an ex-

tremely complicated design called the Separate-Sample, Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design.

Even if such a design could be implemented, the results would be expressed in terms of summary statistics. Summary statistics are exactly that: summary data. As practitioners know, it is often difficult to generalize summary data to particular individuals and situations. A good example is the IQ score, which encourages us *not* to look at the particular scales of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) or the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale and which certainly keeps us from looking at single tasks performed by the student. Single tasks in particular situations are the bread-and-butter data needed as prerequisites for behavioral change. For example, learning disabilities specialists are beginning to see that it is more important to observe how children discriminate particular consonant sounds than to diagnose and treat a child with a learning problem on the basis of the WISC Verbal Scale IQ.

What implications do the above statements have for the practicing counselor? First, we can no longer be content with basing our strategies and techniques solely on theory. Theory does not give us



any empirical evidence as to the theory's effectiveness; it merely attempts a description in somewhat of a philosophical fashion. Second, we can no longer rely solely on conventional statistical analyses and data to give us the kind of reliable, generalizable facts we need in order to help individuals. Formal statistical analyses are usually impractical and unreliable for the practitioner: impractical because counselors do not have the time to do a controlled study every time they attempt to help someone, and unreliable for some of the reasons mentioned above. (For further discussion, see Sidman 1960.)

This is certainly not to say that theory and statistical analysis are useless, only that the practitioner needs an alternative, complementary strategy. In order for counselors to check out the efficacy of their techniques, they need a more powerful, workable research tool than statistical analysis or personal opinion. At present, personal opinion seems to be the most prevalent "research tool" used to check out counseling outcomes, this because it is quickly and easily accomplished. The use of personal opinion as a research tool is one of the main reasons that counselors are presently under the gun to either produce empirical results or get out of the business.

What alternatives do counselors have? First, they can test theories and techniques by observing the inner and outer behaviors of the persons with whom they work. They can count, record, and develop graphic illustrations of behavior before and after treatment so that a comparison can be made between baseline (normal conditions) and treatment. This is the most reliable procedure for the counselor who wishes to know whether a particular technique is working to help a particular person at a particular time and place. No statistical study stating that the technique worked ninety-five times out of a hundred for another population of persons at

another time and place will be of as much help as observing behavior in the present to see if the technique is working in the here and now.

## **MULTIPLE BASELINE DESIGNS**

The multiple baseline design involves the measurement of several behaviors over time so that several baselines are established. A technique or procedure is then applied to one of the behaviors until

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**"In order for counselors to check out the efficacy of their techniques, they need a more powerful, workable research tool than statistical analysis or personal opinion."**

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a change is demonstrated in that behavior. The same procedure is then applied to a second behavior, later to a third, and so forth. If the various behaviors change markedly at the point when the procedure is introduced, a strong inference of a causal relationship is established (Hall et al. 1970). Very few applied research studies of this kind have been reported in the literature. Two may be noted; Hart and Risley (1968) and Barrish, Saunders, and Wolf (1969) used multiple designs in their classrooms to study the effects of a particular language acquisition program and group contingencies on certain behaviors.

Risley and Baer (1970) discuss three types of multiple baseline designs: across behaviors, across individuals, and across situations; these will serve as a framework for the remainder of this article.

### **Across Behaviors**

The first approach suggested by Risley and Baer is discussed above and involves obtaining baselines of two or more behaviors of the same individual and intro-

ducing the same procedures to one of the behaviors after the other, causality being demonstrated if the behaviors change successively at the point where experimental procedures are applied and not before. Schwarz and Hawkins (1970), Risley and Hart (1968), and Hall and others (1970) have used this particular multiple baseline design with school-age children.

A recent project I undertook illustrates this type of design in counseling. The client was an eighteen-year-old woman, Virginia, who wished to increase her verbal skills. It was agreed that there were three behaviors that, if increased, would result in better verbal skills. The first increase was to be in the frequency of verbal statements Virginia made while at work. The second increase was to be in the loudness of her voice (so that people would not have to ask her to repeat things or come very near in order to hear her). The third increase was to be in the number of times she initiated conversation by making the first statement.

*Baseline.* During the first week of the project, Virginia counted the frequency

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**"Not only are such designs useful in determining how successful a technique is, but the feedback enables the counselor to make some intelligent statements about why a particular technique has failed."**

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of each of the three behaviors. Figure 1 shows the number of times Virginia spoke to someone at work, the number of times she spoke loudly enough so that no one had to ask her to repeat something or move closer to her, and the number of times she initiated conversation with someone. Virginia's mean baseline for the number of times she spoke at work was 1.0 times per day; her mean fre-

quency for speaking loudly enough was 0.8 times per day; and her mean frequency for initiating conversation was 0.4 times per day.

*Counselor Time Contingent on Speaking at Work.* At the beginning of the second week, Virginia was told that for each time she spoke to someone at work during any given day she could have two minutes that same day with her counselor, talking about anything she wished. The mean frequency for speaking at work for this contingency phase increased to 8.2 times per day. Speaking loudly averaged 1.6 times per day, and initiating conversation also remained near the baseline count at 0.6 times per day.

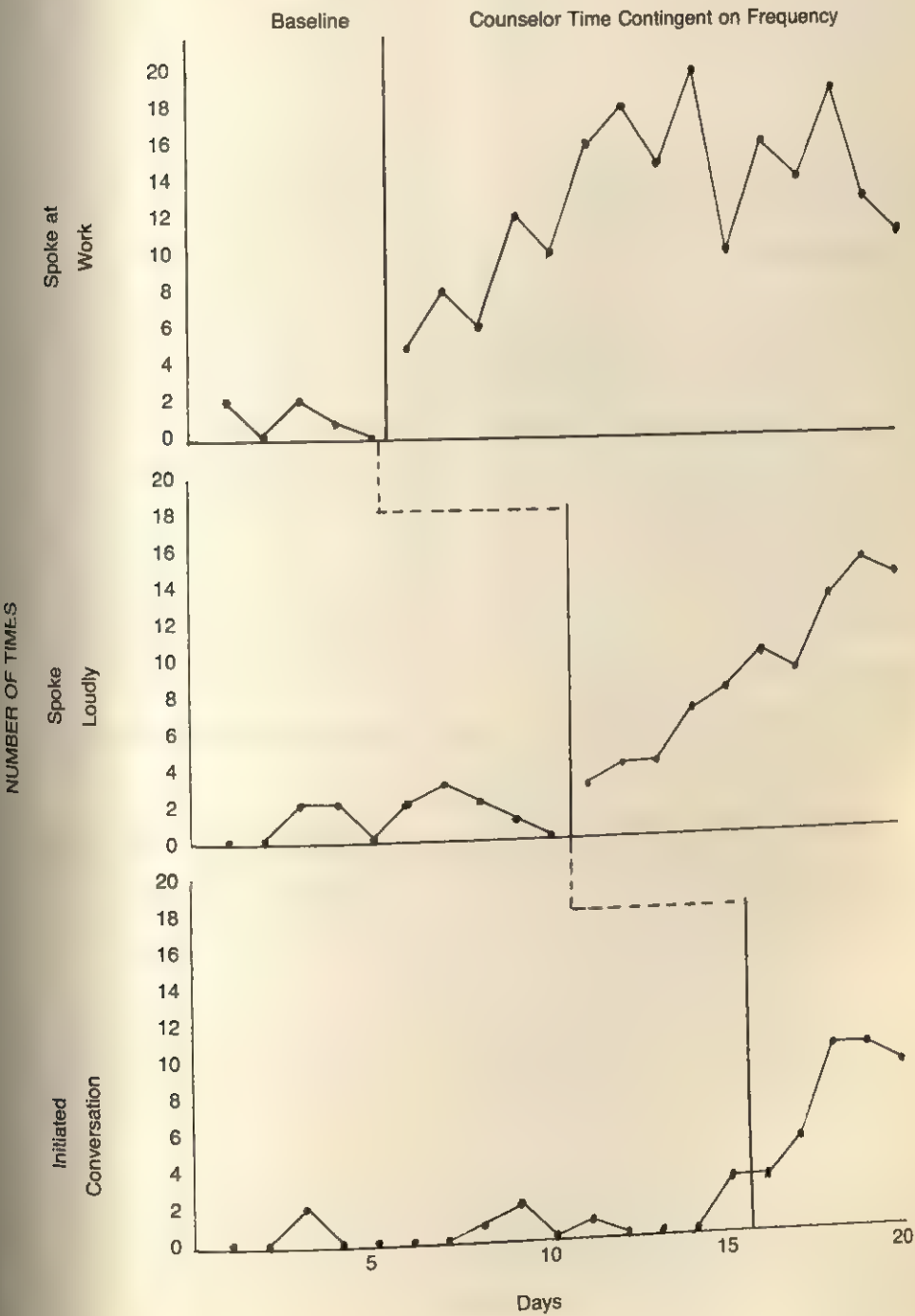
*Counselor Time Contingent on Speaking at Work and Speaking Loudly.* At the beginning of the third week, Virginia was told that she could now have only one minute of counselor time per day for each time she engaged in desirable verbal behavior but that she could combine categories one and two—speaking at work and speaking loudly. During this time, frequencies for both categories increased; the mean frequency for speaking at work increased to 15.8 times per day and the mean count for speaking loudly increased to 5.2 times per day. Initiating conversation again remained near the baseline count at 0.8 times per day.

*Counselor Time Contingent on Speaking at Work, Speaking Loudly, and Initiating Conversation.* At the beginning of the fourth week, Virginia was told that she could now have one minute of counselor time per day for each time she engaged in any one of the three target behaviors. Subsequently, the mean frequency for speaking at work increased to 14.6 times per day, the mean frequency for speaking loudly increased to 12.2 times per day, and the mean count of initiated conversation jumped to 7.4 times per day.

In this project the same contingency technique was applied successively to each of the behaviors, and significant changes in rate were observed at the

FIGURE 1

Record of Eighteen-Year-Old Woman's Frequency of Speaking at Work, Speaking Loudly, and Initiating Conversation (Baseline: Before Experimental Procedures)





points where the contingency was put into effect. It might be argued that it would have been easier to use a single baseline design and merely attack all three behaviors at once; there were two reasons, however, for the choice of the multiple baseline design rather than a simple before-and-after design in this case. First, working on one behavior at a time insured that the number of tasks would not be overwhelming to the client. Second, the multiple baseline design sorted out the importance of counselor time as a contingency.

**Across Individuals**

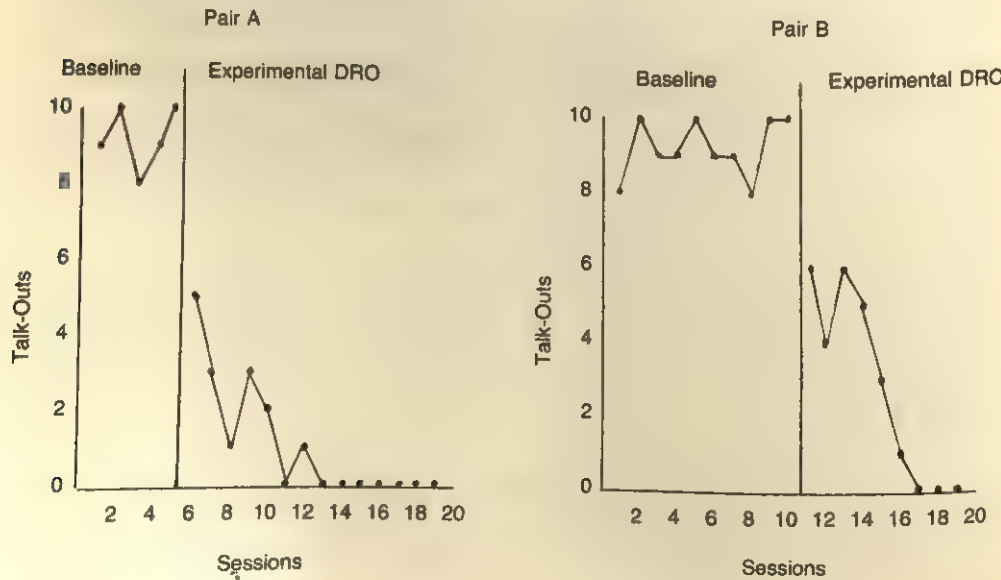
The second multiple baseline design suggested by Risley and Baer is to measure concurrently the same behavior of several individuals in the same situation. After obtaining these baselines, experimental procedures are applied successively to the behavior of one after another of the individuals.

A good example of this type of design is given by Deitz (1973). He selected two pairs of sixth grade boys who were continually talking to one another during

class time. After five baseline sessions, he employed a Differential Reinforcement Procedure (DRO) with Pair A. Pair B was also put on this procedure, but after 10 baseline sessions. Figure 2 shows that Pair A averaged 9.2 talk-outs out of a possible 10 talk-outs for each session during baseline. When the DRO procedure had been implemented for 14 sessions, the average number of talk-outs fell to 1.07 per session; and the last 7 sessions for Pair A contained no talk-outs. Pair B also averaged 9.2 talk-outs during baseline conditions. When DRO was used for 9 sessions, the average fell to 2.77 talk-outs per session, and the last 3 sessions contained no talk-outs.

Deitz could have used a single baseline design and started the DRO procedure with Pairs A and B at the same time. If he had employed this simpler, before-and-after research strategy, there would have been little control for the possibility that other factors that could have affected talk-outs arose simultaneously with the institution of the DRO procedure (e.g., child not feeling well, crisis at home causing the child to be preoccupied and non-

FIGURE 2  
Record of Talk-Outs for Two Pairs of Sixth Grade Boys (Baseline: Before Experimental Procedures)



talkative). Through the use of multiple baselines, however, Deitz was able to show that each pair changed maximally *only* when the DRO procedure was applied to the pair.

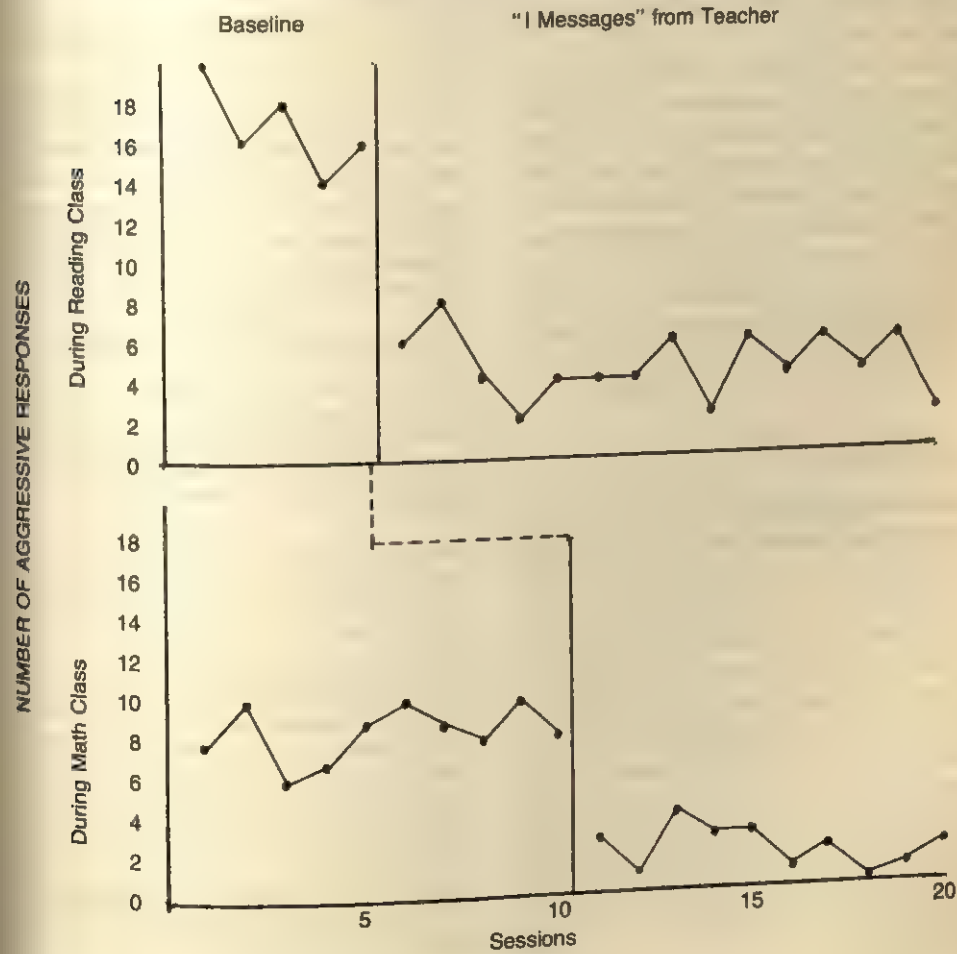
**Across Situations**

The third type of multiple baseline tactic suggested by Risley and Baer is to measure the same behavior of a single individual concurrently in different stimulus situations; I recently employed this design. The study was done to determine whether "I messages" sent by a teacher would be effective in reducing aggressive behavior in a fourth grade child, Timmy, during both reading and math periods.

Aggressive behavior included biting, kicking, and spitting at other children. Timmy received an "I message" (e.g., "I am scared to death that you will hurt someone seriously when you kick") from the teacher each time he engaged in aggressive behavior. Timmy's teacher felt that aggressive behavior would be much more difficult to control during reading class because Timmy hated reading, al-

FIGURE 3

Record of Frequency of Aggressive Responses by a Fourth Grade Boy during Reading Class and Math Class (Baseline: Before Experimental Procedures)



though he enjoyed math. She also hypothesized that if Timmy's behavior could be changed in reading it would automatically change in other classes, just because he would now like the teacher more due to her new way of relating to him. Figure 3, however, does not bear out this hypothesis. During days 6 to 10, Timmy's aggressive behavior was decreasing in reading but remained at the same high level in math. It was not until the "I messages" were made contingent on aggressive behavior in math class that aggressive behavior began to decline during math. Thus, the use of a multiple baseline research technique was used to check out a hypothesis about human behavior, and Timmy's teacher no longer assumed that all of his aggressive behavior would decrease merely as a result of her relating differently to him during part of the day.

Not only are such designs useful in determining how successful a technique is across behaviors, individuals, and situations, but the feedback from such frequency charts enables the counselor to make some intelligent statements about why a particular technique has failed. The counselor thus becomes more of a practitioner in applied research, being able to determine if, when, and why he or she is being effective or ineffective.

## CONCLUSION

Counselors are invited to check out their techniques with the multiple baseline strategies discussed in this article. The techniques used do not have to come from the category known as reinforcers and extinction procedures. In fact, counselors are strongly encouraged to employ multiple baseline designs to check out the efficacy of any and all kinds of procedures and techniques, such as empathy responses, "I messages," and "low-risk responses." This kind of applied research will give counselors feedback as to whether they are having an effect or not,

make them more accountable, and help develop a science of behavior. No one is in any better position than the practitioner to do the kind of research that will advance the techniques of helping others. Presently we counselors simply are not taking advantage of the wealth of information at our fingertips. We can do better. We can become less frustrated and more sure of what we are doing. Let's do. ■

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## For Me . . . From Us

*. . . with the belief that, while groups are useful and even necessary at times, individual recognition should not be sacrificed for the communal spirit*

I'm always a group  
I'm never just me  
Alone in the starlight  
For others to see  
Is where I belong  
To be happy and proud  
But I'm never my own  
I'm always a crowd

JOHN THOMAS NICKENS

Albuquerque Job Corps Center for Women, Albuquerque, New Mexico

# tomorrow's horoscope for today's counselor types

ELLIOTT MOZÉE

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*It is salutary for us to view ourselves with tongue in cheek occasionally. Humor carries its own modicum of truth, so the reader is enjoined to play the game according to the rules. If you become offended, says the author, you either believe in astrology or take yourself too seriously—perhaps both. If you are amused, fine; but the author hopes this article will provoke a little thought as well.*

First, will all school and college counselors please look at Figure 1 and find which quadrant contains the "real you"—the space where you feel you really belong. (You other laborers in the counseling and student personnel vineyard will have your turn later in this article.) Of course, you are a three-dimensional person, and a two-dimensional chart can't possibly capture your basic essence, but give it a try anyway. Don't let the chart intimidate you; feel free to add your other provocative functions along an appropriate diagonal. This will help personalize the quadrant and make it more truly yours.

Have you found a comfortable spot? Terrific! Now for your free personality description and horoscope.

## COUNSELOR TYPES

### The Type I Counselor: "The Methodologist"

You keep generating great ideas for institutional research and end up doing almost all the work yourself—and won-

der why. You get frequent compliments from board members and administrators for your studies, particularly the ones presented with lots of colorful graphs and charts. Your big moment of glory, however, came in graduate school when you proved your professor was wrong in front of the entire seminar and still got an A for the course. When you were in the classroom a few years back, your students knew they had to get a minimum of 658½ points out of a possible 700 to get an A for the term. Now that you are a counselor, the students are quite careful not to interrupt you in your office. You haven't been aware of this, because you've been spending an inordinate amount of time playing with your new transistorized desk calculator.

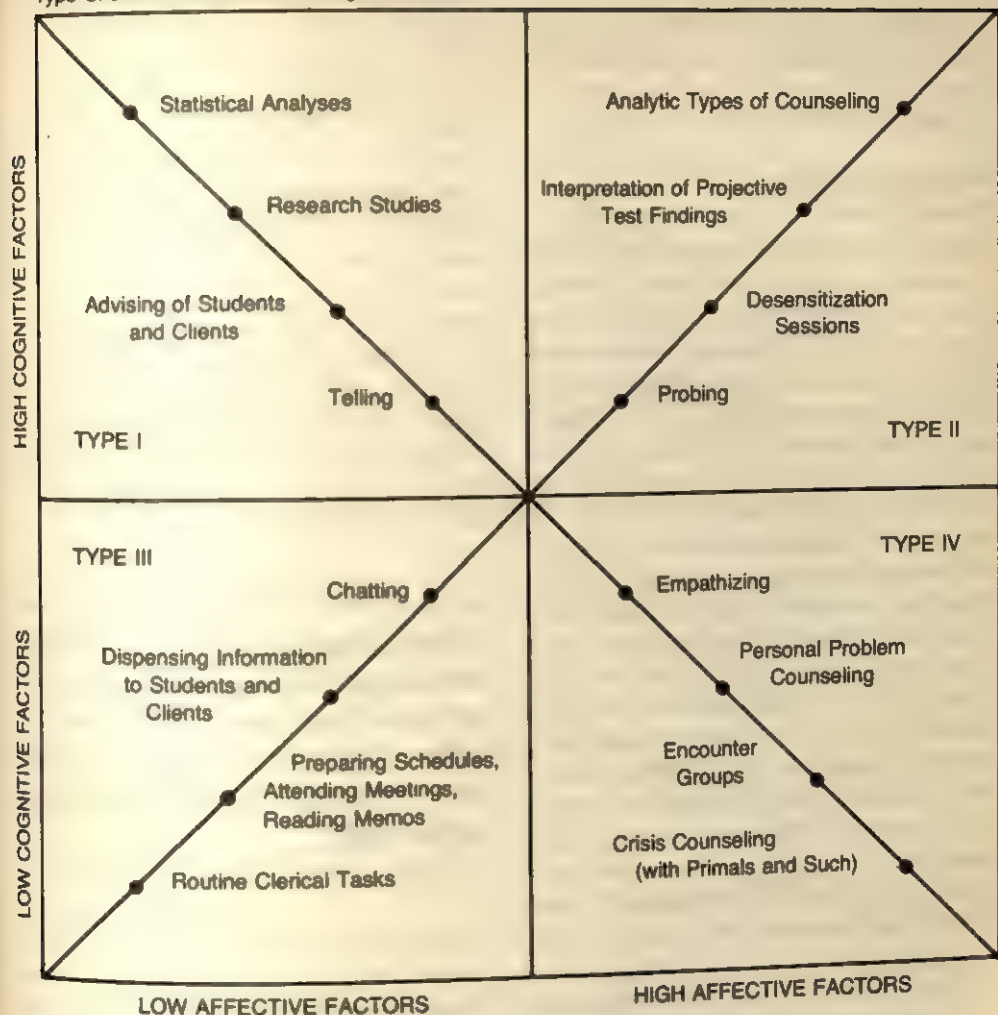
**Your Horoscope:** You will take a course in grantsmanship and then submit a federal grant application that will come up a winner. With the award, you will conduct a longitudinal study dear to your heart. The administration will allow you plenty of released time from counseling because they are so delighted you got the grant (even though nobody else on campus has read your proposal). One caution: Your unwavering belief in the robustness of the *t*-test is to be drastically shaken in the very near future.

### The Type II Counselor: "The Shrink Manqué"

While you intimidate some of your co-workers who feel you to be a bit too cere-

FIGURE 1

Type Chart for School and College Counselors



bral, even unintelligible, you have a number of documented case histories in your personal files that attest to your success as a counselor. (The documentation is mainly your own.) You stand ready to pick up the psychic casualties from the Type IV counselors. One-to-one counseling is your *modus operandi*. Disdaining such mundane functions as educational planning and career guidance, you lovingly fondle the TAT cards and WAIS block designs as you direct your clients to make regular weekly fifty-

minute therapy appointments. Your greatest disappointment to date was being eliminated from a PhD program because those university jackals had no compassion for your environmentally derived "math block." You also have a penchant for attending esoteric conferences at the opposite end of the country and name-dropping on your return.

*Your Horoscope:* Your request to attend the Wertheimer Retrospective in Leipzig next summer will be denied. A friend will give you the name of a well-known di-



ploma mill where you can get an easy doctorate. Your big opportunity to apply the Masters and Johnson techniques with sexually dysfunctional couples will occur during your first year of private practice. Be careful, sport.

### **The Type III Counselor: "Straight Arrow"**

You are truly the low-profile counselor. You probably accomplish a lot of tasks in a normal working day, have very neat files, and are considered conscientious and competent by your student personnel administrator—and not without some justification. You have served and will continue to serve on more committees than any other member of your department. Teaching was not the personally rewarding experience you hoped it would be, but you are quite satisfied with your present counseling position in most respects because it allows you plenty of time for your committee work. In your off-campus life you have become addicted to television and soft foods. You envy a bit the Type I counselors, dislike the Type IV counselors, and would never send *your* son or daughter to a Type II counselor. Occasionally you think about bucking for an administrative post.

*Your Horoscope:* Don't count on getting an administrative opening. The probabilities of your counseling at your present institution until retirement are on the order of ninety-seven out of one hundred. A person whose opinion you respect will tell you that your office decor is rather too bland, and you will buy a Walter Keane print that same day. You will continue taking group package tours during vacations.

### **The Type IV Counselor: "The Love Guru"**

You are quietly aware that you have the longest hair of anyone on the faculty, with the exception of that weirdo in the English Department. You haven't worn a

tie (or dress if you're female) on the job for the past four years but still spend more for spiffy clothing than your principal or president. Your working vocabulary includes such terms as "joint," "right on," "outtasight," "that's cool," and "downer." The members of your encounter groups report that you can shout "Bullshit!" with the best of them. You aren't afraid of feelings (only intellectual ones), and the box of tissues in your office is as much for you as it is for your counselees. The administration tolerates you, but you should know that they get quite "uptight" when you miss meetings ("had a really heavy rap going") and neglect to get your paperwork ("more bullshit") done on time.

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**"Your Horoscope: A person whose opinion you respect will tell you that your office decor is rather too bland, and you will buy a Walter Keane print that same day."**

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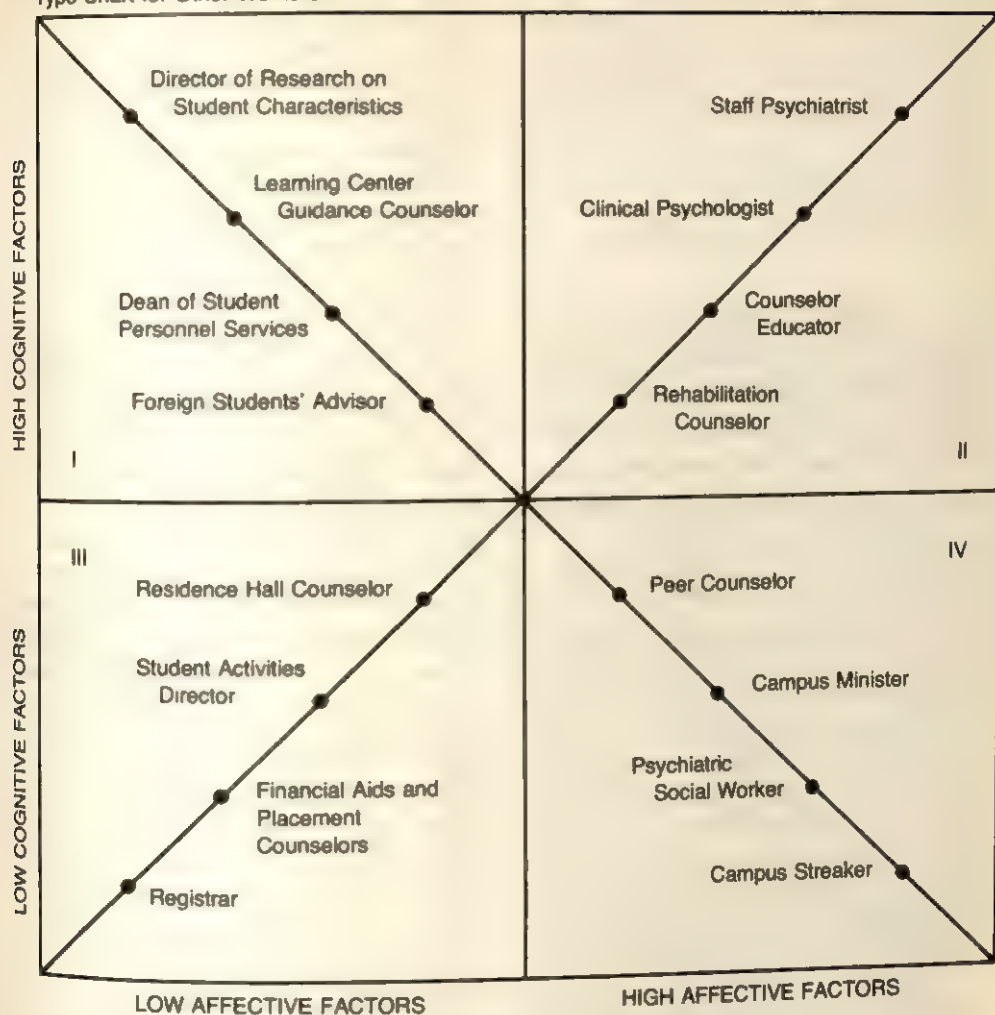
*Your Horoscope:* You and your mate of many years will be splitting soon. Many people will wonder just what you mean when you tell them you have grown but your ex hasn't, feeling just the opposite to be true. One of the youngest members of your current encounter group will provide needed solace in the trying days ahead. Forget the summer trip to Nepal to commune with your guru; the divorce is going to be expensive. Peace, sister or brother, you're tenured.

### **OTHER WORKERS**

Early in this article, readers who are not school or college counselors were asked to wait their turn. Those of you who have persisted to this point need only look at Figure 2 to find where at least one of

FIGURE 2

Type Chart for Other Workers



your professional colleagues resides. The rationale for quadrant placement was empirically derived in each instance from an *N* of 1.

The director of research on student characteristics was placed in the upper left of Quadrant I mainly because he was buried behind huge stacks of computer printouts during the interview. Eye contact with him was impossible, and a nonaromatic pipe tobacco literally provided an unfactorable smoke screen. Next stop was the 3M Building (Mixed

Multiple Media). The guidance counselor in the Learning Center avidly videotaped our session but seemed much more at ease with the hardware, software, and mediumware. Later, while replaying the cassette recording made during the meeting, an eighteen-minute segment of the tape was mysteriously found to be blank except for a faint hiss. The dean of student personnel services was positioned by default, as she was once again at the state capitol lobbying for more money (or maybe it was for

more parking). Our last Quadrant I candidate, the foreign students' advisor, explained that he had a very emotional time trying to convey explicit information to his advisees and asked to be placed as close to the middle of the chart as possible.

In Quadrant II, the staff psychiatrist was a natural for the top-right corner position. In ten poignant minutes she

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**"Many of you Quadrant II members (High Cognitive-High Affective) will lose your closet status when colleagues discover you reading *Psychology Today*."**

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gave a masterful exegesis of the origins of her own rather unusual neurosis (a catcher's mitt fetish), which she then topped off with a brilliant neo-Freudian interpretation. Later that same day, the clinical psychologist insisted on being positioned right below the psychiatrist in the quadrant. This request was quickly agreed to, since his tic was becoming much more noticeable as our conference progressed. Also insisting on Quadrant II placement was the counselor educator. She carefully explained that academic promotions came fastest to the Quadrant I types (but she was too people-oriented for them) and seldom to Quadrant III and IV types. She felt she had a fighting chance in Quadrant II, especially since it was reputed that next year would be a good year for female faculty promotions. Wish her luck! Finally, our sample rehabilitation counselor expressed the real fear that his counseling skills were going to become atrophied while he devoted his professional life to comprehending the thirty-six federal and state special education bills involving educational aids for the handicapped. "I'll be in your Quadrant

III for sure next year!" he exclaimed as he filed a grant application for nuclear-powered wheelchairs.

In the lower left quadrant of the chart lie those student personnel folks whose tasks are bounded—and often bound—by the rules, regulations, and procedures promulgated at all levels of government. These registrars, housing directors, financial aid officers, admissions directors, and placement counselors work hard at their jobs and should not be denied that extra jigger of pleasure after a hard day in the mine shaft. Cheers! Moving up the Quadrant III diagonal to student activities, we find more affect and more controversy—some pessimistic, some idealistic, but pretty superficial by and large. As the student activities director remarked, "Getting the posters made for Homecoming and refereeing student council meetings isn't very deep or meaningful, but it does provide some students with an alternative to reading textbooks and attending classes." Searching for a residence hall counselor, I found the poor devil trying to form a dorm rap group in the middle of a spirited water balloon fight on the third floor. He was a struggling graduate student and could even remember how peaceful the campus had been when the Cambodian crisis had emptied the residence halls. Now he spent most of his time locked in his room, remaining very quiet and studying.

The peer counselor in Quadrant IV felt she had much more flexibility and range than the residence hall counselor. She saw herself as a referrer and befriender of new students. There was a motherly quality about her, and she admitted to having seen thirty winters and being a psychology major. Most of the other peer counselors, she said, were more mixed up than the students who sought their help.

Entering the sanctuary of the campus ministry was a trip in itself. The huge, colorful posters emblazoned with the



shibboleths of our time were most striking, and the incense odor wasn't too sickening. The minister "on call," as he put it, was attired in mod clothing and an indecipherable pendant of such a nature as to belie the fact that he was a "man of the cloth." Since his seminary days, he said, he had progressed from retreats to sensitivity groups and was just then in the process of making application to a weekend nude encounter. He chummily agreed that Quadrant IV was his new but already cozy home.

Quadrant IV also suited to a T-Group the psychiatric social worker. Currently "into" bioenergetics, hatha yoga, polarity massage, and gestalt fantasy, she incorporates all these techniques into her group and family therapy sessions. As she put it, the past few years have found her moving from head trips to body trips. (Her ex-husband has custody of the children.)

Unlike the goldfish swallower, the panty raider, and the phone booth stuffee of yesteryear, the streaker of 1974 was not available for comment. Well might you ask what a streaker is doing on a student personnel type chart. Although the evidence is not conclusive, rumor has it that last spring's streaker, the one in the red ski mask, was none other than one of the key staffers in the area. Oh well, fads pass but gossip remains.

Horoscopes for these groups must of necessity be cast in most general terms. However, despite the mixed-message game being played by the stars and planets, you should heed the signs if you wish to bring some sense of order into your otherwise chaotic life.

Those of you in Quadrant I (High Cognitive-Low Affective) should avidly seek promotions to a higher status position, because some of your jobs are about

to be abolished. Try chairing an important committee in your community and hosting a workshop at your institution. This will show your boss that you have organizational talents. Also, get something published. It doesn't matter where; even a vanity press will do.

Many of you Quadrant II members (High Cognitive-High Affective) will lose your closet status when colleagues discover you reading *Psychology Today*. If you have a small private practice, please don't be greedy and raise your fees again this year. You should also be secure enough by now to admit that you could use a little help. Try a role reversal with your next client and see how that feels. You might be surprised.

The horoscope for Quadrant III (Low Cognitive-Low Affective) persons is the least clear of all, and for this you have my apologies. Some of you are obviously stuck and won't admit it until those stomach pains are diagnosed as an ulcer. A few of you will make the move to Quadrant I positions and perhaps find true happiness there. The rest of you are best advised to just hang in there until retirement.

Unlike the clouded nature of Quadrant III horoscopes, the signs for Quadrant IV (Low Cognitive-High Affective) residents are quite clear. Each of you will attend, before your next birthday, at least one growth group for actualizing human potential. Many of you are seemingly unaware that you are already addicted to group grope, but a few of you will soon be undergoing agonizing withdrawal pains. The stars also hold a warning for this group: Beware of an emerging cadre of behavioral engineers who will attempt to make everybody accountable to them.

The entertainment is now finished. Let the introspection begin. ■

# *In the Field*

*Reports of programs, practices, or techniques*

## Training Faculty to Do Career Advising

BEVERLY PROSSER GELWICK

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One of the major concerns shared by students and faculty is the problem of adequate advising. Students feel impersonally dealt with and poorly advised; faculty have little or no training for this function, are poorly rewarded for the time spent in advising, and do not see advising as related to the teaching of their particular subjects. This article describes a project conducted at Stephens College, a four-year liberal arts college for women in Columbia, Missouri. The purpose of the project, conducted in the spring semester of 1973, was to train faculty advisors to include lifelong career guidance in their academic advising. Career is considered to mean total life activities, including academic work, specific vocations, and social roles.

Several assumptions from vocational development theory, deliberate psychological education, and group dynamics were basic to the design of the project. From vocational development theory comes the first assumption: Exploration and establishment of a vocation occurs for most people in late adolescence and early adulthood, i.e., the age of the college student. For example, Super and others (1963) have suggested that although most settle down to a vocational choice in their mid-twenties, there is

much floundering in the early twenties. They go on to state that the formulation of self-concept is central to vocational development as it is translated into occupational terms and implemented in a vocational choice. Resnikoff (1969) has suggested that people frequently choose an occupation with a superficial knowledge of themselves and the occupation. In order for faculty to advise students effectively, then, students must be familiar with their own self-concepts and must have information about occupations.

The second assumption of the project was based on the findings of deliberate psychological education. Faculty advising viewed from this perspective is not only an important part of the educational endeavor, it is also rewarding to faculty and students. Mosher and Sprinthall (1971) demonstrated that non-professionals (i.e., nonpsychologists) can be trained to aid others in personal and human development when they conducted an interdisciplinary effort in which teachers and counseling psychologists integrated student needs and concerns with curricular goals.

Finally, the findings of group dynamics provided the third assumption. Cartwright and Zander (1968) reviewed group dynamics research and

generalized that people are more willing to be risk takers in groups than as individuals and that they are able to learn from interaction with several people having the same concerns. Following this conclusion, group experience became the vehicle to provide faculty training in stages two and three of the model. Group experience was also an important part of the student participation.

## OUTLINE OF THE TRAINING PROGRAM

The participants in the training program were seven faculty advisors from one academic department, seven doctoral interns in counseling psychology (hereafter referred to as trainers), and fifty-four students assigned in groups of six to eight to their own academic advisor and representing various academic majors in the college.

The program had three stages. In the first stage, faculty and trainers were given selected theory and research that could be read in about half a day. They were also given information dealing with the job market and women, graduate school opportunities, discriminations experienced by women from childhood to adulthood, and life styles.

In stage two, the faculty participated for one evening in an intensive career exploration group with two trainers. This group was a miniature of the day-long marathon that comprised stage three. The faculty were asked to play the role of themselves as they were in college, and they were taught how to relate self-understanding to the planning of careers by retracing their own career development. The theory behind each step of the marathon was explained and related to the previously read material. The trainers demonstrated various techniques and instruments, and the faculty in turn practiced them.

The most significant stage was the third one. Here the background reading

of the faculty and their experience in the miniature group marathon was applied to actual work with students. Each faculty member became a co-leader with one of the trainers and ran a day-long career exploration group with his or her own advisees. There were therefore seven groups of students with co-leaders.

## THE GROUP MARATHON

All participants met in a brief general session to hear a rationale for the project and program details. Following this session, all meetings were in small groups with a trainer, a faculty co-leader, and students. The remainder of the morning was spent in exploration of self-knowledge in terms of ability, interests, personality, and independence of choice in relation to family and peers. This was done by asking each student to tell her own vocational history, after story modeling by the trainer and co-leader. The group participated in five minutes of simple relaxation exercises between the modeling and the students' vocational histories to allow time for self-reflection and to give a set for the relaxation training planned for the evening session. Lunch and dinner provided relaxation for some and continuation of the subject for others.

The afternoon session had three main themes. Several weeks before the group marathon, the students had completed the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and Holland's Vocational Preference Inventory (1958, 1966) at the Stephens College Counseling Service. The first theme, then, was exploring vocational interests as measured by the two instruments. The Strong was interpreted by the trainer, and the Vocational Preference Inventory was interpreted by the co-leader. The second theme of the afternoon was women's career patterns and attitudes. To deal with attitudes, we used the projective techniques and rationale developed and researched by Horner



(Bardwick et al. 1970) and Hawley (1972). The students provided additional information from their experiences. The third theme was career resource information. By alternating the schedules of the groups, it was possible to have two groups at a time in the college library, where career information was explored with the librarian assigned to the counseling center.

The evening meetings started with feedback on the marathon experience up to that point; an easy transition was therefore provided to a discussion on decision making. The ingredients in the process of decision making were examined and related to a decision each student had made in the past, such as deciding to go to college. By the time the decision-making discussion was concluded, everyone was tired and ready for relaxation, so a trainer or co-leader took the group on a vocational fantasy trip. This involved relaxation training and the fantasizing of a work day six years hence: where one lived, how one got to work, fellow workers and friends, and evening and weekend plans. The marathon was concluded by students sharing several ideas that they had found interesting and discussing how these fit into lifelong career planning.

## RESULTS

This project is an answer to an often stated belief that faculty lack motivation to improve their advising. After being approached with the idea, the faculty were eager for the design to be completed; and before the training program began, other faculty asked to be included.

The results of the faculty career advising project were assessed by individual feedback sessions with the faculty and with the trainers. A student questionnaire was also sent out. The faculty advisors were most excited about the project and its results, and they are now in-

dividually making plans to incorporate this experience into their own ongoing advising. Further, they recommended to the college, through the chairperson of the faculty advising committee, the adoption of a similar model for the training of advisors. In their feedback sessions they frequently spoke of personal rewards. Some anecdotal comments: "I got to know the students as I never would in four years of advising and teaching." "I have known that this type of advising was necessary, but I didn't know how to do it." "It was surprising to trace my own development to the profession I am now in."

And some representative replies to the student questionnaire: "Through this session I found out a lot about myself that I'd either forgotten or never was aware of." "Getting to know our advisors was a special part of the day. We never realized that even they still have questions regarding career direction." "I think it would have been more rewarding to separate underclasswomen from upperclasswomen." "Meeting other people with the same type of problems as myself proved helpful." "It was too long." "It was fantastic and should be continued." "It helped to have a man and a woman as leaders."

The trainers were enthusiastic about the experience. Several are trying it in different situations. One trainer saw it as an alternative to the several two-hour sessions currently being conducted at the University of Missouri Counseling Center. Another said that he was trying a comparable method with high school teachers and students. One trainer, who had experience in correctional institutions, considered the implications for use with men and women going on parole. The trainers as a whole were disappointed with the decision-making portion of the program because it appeared that it was difficult for the students to generalize from the experience of making decisions about college selection to

making decisions about careers; the trainers plan to try different methods in the future.

The preponderant response of participating students, trainers, and faculty was enthusiastic. The experience has led to recommendations to the college for the establishment of a similar design for training all faculty advisors. Results suggest that faculty advisors would welcome training in career guidance and that they are motivated and rewarded when doing effective advising. ■

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# Crossing Cultural Barriers: A View from Lagos

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Arriving in Lagos three years ago, I was overwhelmed by a flood of sights, sounds, and smells I had never experienced before. I spent the first six months watching and listening, trying to figure out the rules, trying to understand what people were saying. I immersed myself in the history and language of the Yorubas, who comprise the greatest part of the population in Lagos.

To begin my work in Nigeria I undertook a research project to find out the concerns of freshmen at the University of Lagos and their reactions to individual and group counseling. Following this, as a lecturer in the Department of Psychology, I have been conducting a group interaction laboratory for final year stu-

dents. The material in this article comes from these experiences.

My initial work with students was very tentative. I listened and asked questions, trying to find out how students here see their world and what problems they are facing. There had been only one survey of problems done before I arrived (Ademuwagun 1971), so I felt like a stranger in a strange land. How was I ever to help students solve problems, understand, and communicate?

## BRIDGING THE COMMUNICATION GAP

From the beginning I was aware of the difficulties inherent in having a counselor and a counselee who were from

different cultures. One of my concerns was that I would be unable to establish mutual trust. I found that in the first few weeks of my work students were unsure of what we were trying to do. None of them had had any previous experience with counseling. As soon as we were able to define our expectations of one another, I found them able to talk more freely. Their stereotyped view of Americans as being open and friendly was helpful to me. The difficulty was in their view of authority.

In the Yoruba culture, relationships are clearly defined on a hierarchical basis. Age and status in the society are the measures one uses in determining how to respond to another person. Though I was of the same age as most of the students, even younger than a few, I was seen as an employee of the university and an American, both facts giving me status. Even though I described myself as a peer and encouraged the use of my first name, which is common between age mates, students saw me as an authority. In the Yoruba culture, of which many of the students are a part, it is expected that a person in authority will give advice. The idea that I was there only as a catalyst to get students to solve their own problems, or even the idea that we would work problems out together, was difficult for them to accept. Their intuitive reaction to me was always to flatter me and agree with anything I said. The flattery was used by some students to mask their feelings completely. In a few cases it prevented us from making any progress.

Another concern I had was that I would misunderstand or misread behavior in sessions and that my intuitive reactions would be inappropriate. I did indeed have difficulty in this area. As one of the students said, "I expect people to know what I am feeling even if I say the opposite." It is very difficult for many Nigerians to say no. Politeness and generosity are highly valued traits. Therefore, I frequently found students

agreeing to something and masking the expressions on their faces in a way that I could not read. One example of this took place at a group session. A student wished to leave the group early. I suggested that he ask the group about it. Each member gave him permission without any reservation. In the written evaluations at the end of the session, however, three students strongly stated that he should not have left early. Slowly I am becoming able to read facial expressions that meant nothing to me before. The quickness of a response or the expression of energy behind it seems to indicate sincerity. A certain blankness or slow reaction seems to indicate some kind of reservation. When discrepancies are pointed out between words and feelings or actions, students usually laugh and say that this is their way; it is therefore the obligation of the other person to know the rules of the game.

The desire to flatter me and the unwillingness to show negative feelings to anyone outside the immediate age group created questions about the validity of the students' evaluation of the counseling process. As my work continued, however, I discussed this issue with students and found that more and more negative feelings were expressed. I took this as an indication of increased trust between us. I also found that examining the attendance of individual students gave an indication of how they were viewing the counseling. In a few cases I found students to be praising the counseling highly and yet missing most meetings; I looked on these cases as failures on my part to establish mutual trust.

In order to establish trust, I relied on the principles of the counseling relationship outlined by Rogers and Stevens (1967). I believe that these processes underlie any helping relationship, and they seemed to allow me to learn and help at the same time. The key point was honesty. My sharing with students allowed us to establish a relationship not bound by



cultural rules but by the immediate experience we were sharing. Once a relationship was developed, we examined methods of problem solving together, and the student chose the way to get at the difficulties. Both individual and group counseling were offered as well as laboratory training later on.

## PROBLEM AREAS

Problems most frequently discussed were feelings of shyness or inability to communicate with others, concern about relationships with the opposite sex, and difficulty in dealing with university authorities. Underlying these concerns seemed to be the fact that freshmen at the university are placed in a conflict-generating situation arising as a result of the novel way of life and the exacting demands of university education.

Students generally come to the university from a family setting within a homogeneous and stable ethnic environment. In such a setting they are clear about modes of communication and social interaction. Their social roles are well defined and understood. Their self-concepts are stabilized. On arriving at the university, the freshmen are confronted by a situation in which they must establish relationships and communications with people of very different backgrounds from their own. They lose confidence in themselves due to the ambiguities of the novel situation. Students appear to experience a sense of isolation and powerlessness.

In general, I found that most students at the university have some emotional problems they want to discuss with a counselor. Students are unused to solving their own problems and lack self-reliance. The counseling process should therefore be viewed as a learning process relevant not only to the particular problems discussed but also to the students' learning at the university in general and

to their ability to solve problems on leaving the university.

## DOES IT MAKE SENSE HERE?

I was particularly concerned with the fact that many Western values were implied in much of the counseling. For example, an emphasis was placed on the individual and the individual's personal view of his or her experiences, and readings from such psychologists as Rogers and Maslow were part of the laboratory. Esen (1972), however, has made the point that in Africa the group rather than the individual is the reality. The African is more likely to be other-directed and more used to authoritarian upbringing than the Westerner. In order to deal with these issues, the values implied were made explicit and students were encouraged to examine these values from their own points of view. There was also an emphasis on the group process.

In analyzing students' comments and reactions, it appears that students at the University of Lagos had many individual concerns that they were interested in exploring on an individual basis through meditation and other personal experiences and perceptions. They particularly valued such problem-solving methods as role playing and gestalt techniques (Perls 1969). They were able to make these relevant by their choice of content. They had difficulty expressing themselves nonverbally, as in exercises in which they were to express a feeling or an attitude with their bodies or carry out an improvisation, and being open to fantasy experiences. This may be due to their years of Westernized education rather than to a conflict with traditional values, since it appears that within the traditional context people use and are aware of the nonverbal, as evidenced in plays written by Duro Ladipo, a Yoruba dramatist. They are particularly aware of the use of facial expressions to convey meanings of words. An example of this, which was

given by a student, is the situation in which a child asks for money when a visitor is present. The mother says yes and tells the child to go and get it, but the child knows by looking at her that he or she dare not take anything. My hypothesis is that throughout the students' education an emphasis has been placed on literal meanings and therefore they are not as comfortable with the non-verbal. The laboratory setting may also have been the wrong context for them to explore meanings on this level. Students placed a high priority on rationality and did not feel comfortable with more intuitive processes.

During group interaction sessions they tried to maintain a feeling of closeness, but they were unable to work together and make group decisions because individuals were unwilling to change their points of view—even for the benefit of the group. One possible explanation for this is that, since there was no clearly defined authority, students became more individualistic. The students were able to establish more and more trust as the lab progressed. They shared many personal experiences and perceptions of one another. However, they were unable to carry out an exercise in which they rated one another on the roles they had played in the group; they felt that too many bad feelings would be revealed.

## AFRICA IN TRANSITION

Important to the laboratory and to much of the work done by humanistic psychologists is the belief that if a person is encouraged to grow, the result will be self-expression and a willingness to share and give to others. If this is true, this kind of training does not have to conflict with the traditional emphasis on the group in Africa.

Esen (1972) has said that the new African is a citizen of two worlds, the traditional and the modern. A successful guidance operation must shuttle between

the two. During the second term of the lab much time was spent in exploring this conflict in values. Students began by discussing the issue in small groups, where observers sat behind participants in order to express what they thought were the unstated feelings. These perceptions were then checked out and agreed on or disagreed on by the participants.

The next exercise used the metaphorical process (Gordon 1966) to explore the image of the integrated human being. One of the images that evolved was that of an elastic belt, stretching yet limited in form. Another image that the group developed was that of the flying kite that is controlled yet liberated, free and wandering yet bound to earth or to the past. This was followed by the role playing of personal situations in which the students had actually faced such problems. They also held discussions in which they analyzed the differences in values between themselves and their parents. These discussions led to working on conflict resolution in general, and near the end of the sessions students worked on the conflicts among themselves. This is particularly relevant in Nigeria, which is still in the process of healing from a brutal civil war. Students intellectually espouse nationalism, but tribal stereotypes are still in evidence and create subtle social pressures. Bringing these conflicts into the open seems an important aspect of university education here.

## SUMMING UP

All over the world societies are in flux. Mead (1970) has discussed how cultures change. Nigeria may be in one phase of change: the change from what Mead calls a postfigurative culture, in which children learn primarily from their elders, to a configurative culture, in which both children and adults learn from their peers. In the States one finds more of a prefigurative culture, in which adults learn also from their children. Yet the

element of rapid change is influencing us all, frequently separating the old and the young.

In Nigeria people are becoming aware of their national ties, while in America ethnicity is a key issue. In both cases, however, it is essential that there be communication among groups if there is to be a peaceful and productive society. Counselors have a vital role in facilitating such communication. The role of the counselor must become more that of a change agent (Banks 1973) who moves from group to group encouraging interaction and understanding.

My work in Nigeria tends to support Maslow's (1962) idea that growth experiences occur in all cultures. The language and content of experiences may be different, but the underlying processes are the same. In order to facilitate this growth, the counselor who is unfamiliar with a culture, in either his or her own country or another country, must as a first step learn the language and the meanings of interactions in different social contexts. An initial period is needed to submerge oneself in the new environment, learning to communicate in a new way. Mutuality and checking out of

perceptions are essential in establishing trust.

Whether the situation is one in which a white counselor is meeting with black counselees, is trying to get parents and children to talk to one another, or is going into a new country, one must relearn the rules and be open to world views completely different from one's own. ■

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# A Guidance Center Provides Time to Counsel

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The counselors at Guilderland High School designed and implemented a guidance center where most counseling activities take place and where guidance

reference materials are available to all. The guidance center concept is an open, team approach to guidance services that, by permitting counselors to counsel, has



resulted in a greater understanding and use of these services by students, faculty, parents, and administration.

## ORIGIN AND NEED

Guilderland High School has seven counselors for the 2,000 students in grades 9 through 12. Prior to the new arrangement, the counselors functioned in offices in two different sections of the building. All offices were reached by students and teachers through narrow corridors supervised by secretaries. The doors were more often closed than open. While each counselor had basic college and career references in a bookcase, the complete reading reference area was some distance away in the multi-media center. The counselors found these references impractical for routine use; students could not benefit from counselor assistance with questions. Counselor dissatisfaction led to a student, faculty, administration, and counselor study of guidance needs with respect to improving services. The results were as follows:

- Faculty needed increased accessibility to student information and counselor interpretation of school and student data.

- Students needed more group information programs, greater counselor accessibility (especially on a drop-in basis), greater exposure to the ideas of all counselors, more group counseling, more accessible and usable college and career materials, and assistance in the use of all reference materials.

- Counselors needed to work with clients free from office and telephone interruptions, to be more available to students, to have areas that would be quickly available for group sessions, to escape from the deskbound routine, to have resource materials readily available while counseling, to work in close proximity with other counselors in a coordinated program, and to help each other

with problem analysis and specialized information when unusual situations arose.

## A CONCEPT EVOLVES

After determining these needs and establishing some priorities, counselors sought ideas for an organizational plan that would better meet the needs; they visited other schools, talked to other counselors, read journals, and attended conventions. An idea grew: to move all counselors to one office location and convert a nearby classroom into a reference room. The administration could not allow us a classroom and suggested a small cafeteria (55' x 35') instead; the staff decision to use this cafeteria was fortuitous. From staff analysis of all these factors, a new concept evolved that met each of the student, faculty, and counselor needs to some degree; and the open, flexible arrangement made possible later endeavors that had never even been considered in the original planning.

A guidance center was designed to bring together into one open setting the counseling, information, outside speaker, and reference functions of the guidance effort. Counselors now meet with individuals and groups in six areas of the room, roughly outlined by chair and table arrangements. The center also provides a comfortable place in which college, career, and financial aid information are readily available for casual student use from 7:30 A. M. to 3:30 P. M. each school day.

All students with appointments come to the center to meet their counselor. Students without appointments are encouraged to talk to the duty counselor or to the paraprofessional aide. One counselor is always "on duty" in the center when school is in session to assist drop-in students when their assigned counselor is occupied with parents, teachers, or other students. This virtually eliminates

the problem of students being unable to see their counselor or having to wait all period for their counselor to become available. Students may, if they wish, complete a request form for a personal conference with their counselor.

Because it was formerly a cafeteria, the guidance center is located in the mainstream of traffic, away from administrative offices and adjacent to the cafeteria area used by and easily accessible to students. A tight school budget dictated that equipment consist of a chalkboard and an assortment of bookcases, racks, tables, chairs, screens, and art display boards. The bookcases were loosely spaced to outline the student reading-browsing area. The other items were used as dividers to create a feeling of privacy in the six counseling areas. The school district had to pay only for draperies to control light and make the barren room more inviting.

Counselors accustomed to working in closed offices were hesitant about the loss of privacy, but this was no problem. In fact, the screens are seldom used today; there can be an amazing amount of privacy in a busy room. When four-wall privacy is needed, an adjacent faculty lunchroom can be used if available; or the counselor offices are a short walk up the hall in the guidance suite.

## **DUTY COUNSELORS AND AIDES**

Each counselor is assigned to be duty counselor in the guidance center once a day for two or three 25-minute modules at a time. The duty counselor handles crises and provides preliminary services for those who appear in the guidance center without appointments. When the situation indicates that a follow-up is needed, referrals are made to other counselors and school personnel. The duty periods rotate daily so that students will find a different duty counselor each day during their unassigned periods. The duty counselor functions in the

open reading-browsing area, where he or she can also assist students in the use of college references, catalogs, career data, and audiovisual materials. During the occasional periods when there are no questions or problems, the counselor chats with students in the center or perhaps talks to students in the hall.

A paraprofessional aide in the center provides help by performing such tasks as operating an employment service and assisting students who are seeking information. The aide is available to help counselors as needed and does ordering and filing to keep materials current and usable. Several students who enjoy the guidance center activity have offered to help the aide and the counselors. Also, several parents have volunteered to assist the staff in the center half a day each week by hosting visitors, filing, helping with reference materials, creating displays, and making telephone contacts.

All of this permits unassigned counselors to function with individuals and groups both in and out of the center with a minimum of interruption. Counselors have more opportunities to pursue special interest projects. Most important of all is the ease of mind that results from knowing that someone is available to handle immediate problems as they arise.

## **COUNSELOR FUNCTIONS**

Since the task of assigning each of 2,000 students to a counselor must be efficient, each student is assigned alphabetically to a counselor; this counselor is responsible for the planning and organizational work of the student. However, counselors work as a team in sharing ideas, information, and experiences to assist each other; and students may seek information, advice, and counsel from any staff member. Thus the staff members, with their varied talents and backgrounds, are used advantageously. The



counselors plan cooperatively so that they can coordinate meetings with students individually and in groups for curriculum, career, and educational planning and decision making. The team approach is a key factor; responsibilities are shared to develop group programs within a developmental framework.

Because the guidance center contains flexible work areas that can be quickly adjusted from a one-to-one student-counselor session to a group session with ten students or a group information program for thirty students, counselors planning group meetings for student discussions, group presentations, college visitors, case conferences, or career and industry speakers no longer have to sign up for a conference room days in advance or seek an empty classroom, only to be pushed out at the end of the period. Counselors enjoy the flexibility of being able to arrange group meetings with little advance planning. This places the emphasis on program and content rather than on administrative procedure. The strength of the guidance center concept lies in the cooperative efforts of the staff to provide an open, helping counseling facility designed to meet student needs.

### THE GUIDANCE SUITE

Since paper work has not been eliminated, each counselor does have office space in the guidance suite and has a desk, a telephone, files, and statistics. Here is where counselors fill out forms, make calls, and keep records. The guidance suite is just up the hall from the guidance center and contains space for seven counselors and two office workers. The total staff of ten consists of five full-time counselors, a head counselor (who handles half a counseling load), a half-time counselor, a registrar, a secretary, and the paraprofessional aide.

Since counselors work primarily with students in the guidance center during school hours, calls by parents and others

are handled by the office staff and by a duty counselor in the guidance suite. Like that of the duty counselor in the center, this is a rotating duty assignment. Involved situations and personal concerns are referred to the appropriate counselor or other school officials. Calls may be returned by the counselors during their office duty period or after the school day.

Teachers seek information about students in the guidance suite and are aided by the office duty counselor and office staff. Usually this assistance is immediately available, and the counselor helps the teacher interpret student data. Personal situations are referred to the appropriate counselor for follow-up. Busy and concerned teachers are not always satisfied with this arrangement; however, priorities place students first while they are in the building.

### AND THERE ARE PROBLEMS

The implementation of this guidance center concept required a readjustment in the daily routine of all ten people on the guidance staff. This was accomplished by cooperative study and consensus agreements at each decision-making point in the planning phase. Many meetings were held with many people. Once the final decision to reorganize was unanimously agreed on, all were dedicated to the new concept as the best alternative for a needed departmental reorganization.

Problems developed with our clients—students, teachers, and parents—who were peripherally involved in the planning. Many adjustment problems for clients were foreseen and discussed in advance by the guidance staff and the building principals. The administration helped by giving positive support during the transition as we worked out new procedures.

Counselors felt threatened by the open policy when their assigned students



worked with others either by coincidence or by design. This problem engendered considerable group discussion among all counselors. Even now we remain highly conscious of the open communication that must be carefully maintained between two counselors in such situations. Counselors are less defensive now, and students benefit from the new openness.

Counselors must plan their day carefully so that they can bring with them all the materials from the office—folders, notes, schedules—that they will need during conferences in the guidance center. We still make trips back to the office for forgotten items or because something unexpected has come up; an adjacent suite of offices would be an improvement. However, counselors feel that they have become less dependent on their professional paraphernalia and do a better job of listening to students.

Parents who had been accustomed to immediate counselor response on the telephone were surprised to be referred to the office duty counselor with the explanation that their child's counselor was working with students in the guidance center. Teachers seeking a specific counselor were also directed to the duty counselor. As parents and teachers became accustomed to our new procedure, however, they willingly used the available staff or accepted the delay in response when they realized that their counselor was occupied with students. Furthermore, counselors were surprised to discover how much useful information could be derived from a cumulative record by someone other than the assigned counselor and how many parent and community calls were about general procedures. Possessive counselors concerned about "my students" and "my parents" quickly broadened their perspectives. Also, the administration was pleased to observe that parents could have conferences of all types involving counselors, teachers, and administrators in the open guidance center, with

everyone completely accepting this practice as a normal function of the school program.

Because the high school is mostly a one-floor, sprawling complex, the guidance area is not convenient to teachers at the extremes of the building. This is a definite handicap. In these cases counselor-teacher contacts are usually made by telephone, and counselors are urged to find reasons to walk to these areas.

Students have had the fewest adjustment problems; in fact, they appreciate the immediate attention they receive in the guidance center. We still have to exert gentle pressure to keep the center from becoming a lounge and lunchroom.

One possible weakness that we haven't evaluated is whether counselors miss some crisis contact with troubled students. While we feel successful in what we are doing, and we are able to move to a private area if an emotional outburst occurs, some students simply might not come in because of the open situation.

## WHERE ARE WE?

We have a developmental group counseling program for grades 9 through 12 that is evolving because we have counselors willing and able to do curriculum planning, because we have a facility to handle up to sixty students (ten per counselor) at a time, and because cooperative English and history departments understand our objectives and release students to us from classes for specific counseling units.

The guidance center concept has made counselors accessible to students and has given students greater exposure to the total guidance staff. Students are more aware of the many resources available, and they use the materials to research careers and colleges. The center provides a means to increase student awareness of the relationship between

their high school program, their unique personalities, and the world of work and higher education.

The staff arranges for ancillary services in the center. People from the community use the reference materials and become available for informal counseling. A reunion drew sixty-five recent graduates, who shared experiences with juniors and seniors. Special conferences for students to meet with community volunteer groups seeking student help, with prospective employers, and with the military are set up for a half day. For a while, a counselor from a city drug counseling clinic was in the center one morning a week to confer with students and school personnel.

After one year of functioning in the guidance center, the counselors asked the Professional Advancement Committee of the Capital District Personnel and Guidance Association for an evaluation of the guidance department. Their summary report included: "The guidance center concept has been well received by the majority of people who were asked about it . . . the exception being some teachers who felt it seemed to hinder teacher-counselor communication. They felt that counselors were not

as accessible to teachers as they would like them to be. However, administrators, students, parents and others were favorably impressed with the counseling center arrangement."

Evaluations now, after two years of operation, indicate that the guidance center has removed the quasi-administrator image of the counselor as a deskbound authority figure and eliminated the attitude that only students in trouble or with problems go to a counselor. Working out in the open has taken away some of the counselor mystique for teachers, students, and parents, and the image of the counselor as a dedicated professional has evolved.

Counselors have greater exposure around the school to students and faculty, and students and teachers see counselors counseling. Counselors enjoy the easy accessibility of other counselors and the aide when unfamiliar questions and unusual situations arise, and all resources are steps away. Those needing help do not face a protective secretary and a closed door, because the duty counselor makes someone accessible to all. Most important, when not on duty, counselors have uninterrupted time to counsel. ■

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# Research in Counseling

Richard W. Warner, Jr., Column Editor

*This column is based on the belief that research can provide meaningful data to the practicing counselor. While individual studies may not provide sufficient data on which to act, a combination of separate research efforts or a large-scale, long-term research project does have the possibility of providing sufficient data. This column will undertake to provide that data by either reviewing the current research in a specific area or examining the results from a long-term project. The emphasis will be on implications for the counselor, so there will be little if any information on research design or statistical procedures. Readers desiring more detail about a particular study should write directly to the original author(s). Readers who desire to have the results of their research and/or innovative approaches considered for review in this column should send the material to Richard W. Warner, Jr., Counselor Education, 2054 Haley Center, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama 36830.*

## Peer Counseling

STEPHAN H. SCOTT, Director of Mental Health Services, Baldwin County Mental Health/Mental Retardation Center, Baldwin County, Alabama

RICHARD W. WARNER, JR., Associate Professor, Department of Counselor Education, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama

Many within the counseling profession concerned with the extension of counseling services and the development of procedures that might better meet the needs of special groups have turned to the use of peers as counselors. This interest is reflected in the degree of attention given to peer counseling in the literature. The recurrent theme presented is that counseling services of all kinds can be enhanced through the use of peers as counselors.

We undertook this review in order to see what documentation there is for such claims. We decided not to include any articles reporting programs utilizing paraprofessionals who were not peers and not to include the whole body of literature on the use of peers as models. The effectiveness of peers as models is well documented, and readers who wish to study that area are encouraged to examine the material generated by Albert Bandura and his associates. The focus of this review, then, is on programs in which peers were

actually given some counseling function to perform.

In conducting this review the following resources were used: the ERIC system, several volumes of each of 12 specific journals, and several abstracts common to the field. It is unfortunate that much of the interest in peer counseling, as found in the literature, is in the form of subjective thought articles, with very few articles reporting any attempt at an objective evaluation. From the vast array of articles, 61 were selected for further review because they mentioned evaluation. Many of those, however, were discarded because the evaluation consisted of a subjective "I feel" or "we feel" format.

### PURPOSES OF PEER COUNSELING PROGRAMS

Peer counseling programs have been established to be used in crisis intervention (e.g., drug problems), to provide information ser-

vices, to develop interpersonal and social skills, to improve academic and decision-making skills, and simply to provide friendship.

Peer counselors have been utilized in one of three ways in programs working with elementary-age children through adults. In some cases peers have been used as adjuncts to the counseling program, being given a specifically defined role (e.g., provide orientation). In other cases they have been given almost the same responsibility as the professional counselor. Finally, they have been used in a group setting in a conjoint role with a professional counselor.

### COLLEGE LEVEL PROGRAMS

By far the largest number of studies dealing with peer counseling have been conducted at the college level. Five of the studies (Froman 1972; Luther 1972; McCarthy & Michaud 1971; Murry 1972; Upcraft 1971) used trained peers to help college students with academic problems. In each case the peers were used in addition to the regular counseling program. All five studies reported that the peer programs were beneficial. The first two programs used only a self-report form of evaluation with no control. The studies by Murry, Froman, and Luther were experimental in nature. Murry found student advisors to be more effective than faculty advisors in the academic area, but not in the social area. Froman reported that peer tutoring and individual reinforcement counseling significantly improved high-risk students' chances of succeeding academically and remaining in school. In Luther's study the grade point averages and self-esteem of marginal students were improved.

Studies by Ware and Gold (1970, 1971), by Brown, Wehe, and Zunker (1971), and by Brown (1965) also used peers as counselors with college students, and all reported positive results. The 1971 Ware and Gold study and the Brown study were of the self-report type, while the Brown, Wehe, and Zunker study and the 1970 Ware and Gold study utilized control groups. Of special note is that both the Ware and Gold studies focused on and found positive results through the use of peers working with students who were of similar ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds. One study (Pyle & Snyder 1971)

utilized a self-report evaluation on the effects of peers in social adjustment counseling. They reported that the program was effective, particularly with minority students.

While only five of the ten studies of peer counseling at the college level were truly experimental in nature, the results are encouraging. It does seem that peers can help other students in the area of academics, and of particular importance is the finding that peers from the same general background as their "clients" are effective.

### HIGH SCHOOL/JUNIOR HIGH PROGRAMS

Seven studies containing some form of evaluation have been conducted at the junior and/or senior high level. Hamburg and Var-enhorst (1972) ran a peer counseling program with students in grades seven through twelve. Though they did not utilize a control group, the self-reports of participants indicated that the program was successful in academic, social, and personal areas.

In a three-year experimental study, Engle and Szyperski (1965) found that peer counseling had little effect on grades or the anxiety of seventh, ninth, and tenth graders but did have a tendency to lower the number of disciplinary problems among the participants. Contrasting these studies, Margro (1973) found no differences among peer-led, counselor-led, and peer- and counselor-led groups dealing with the social-behavioral problems of junior high school girls. Also, Parker (1973) reported no differences in the concepts of self and others found among peer-counseled, professionally counseled, and control groups of ninth grade students.

Vriend (1969) evaluated a peer counseling program with low-achieving juniors in high school in which the peer counselors acted as co-leaders in the group counseling. In comparison with a control group, the experimental group with the peer counselors had significantly improved grades at the end of the program.

Two studies (Koch 1973; Lobitz 1970) used peers as adjuncts to the regular counseling program. Koch used a self-report evaluation and found that the peer counselors were effective providers of information; Lobitz utilized a control group and found that peer counselors were effective in helping sophomores improve their grades.

While the evidence supporting peer counseling at the secondary school level is even more limited than at the college level, there is reason for some optimism. At the very least, it appears that peer counselors may be helpful in limited areas, such as academic improvement.

### ELEMENTARY PROGRAMS

Three studies were found at the elementary school level, two of which were of a big brother/sister type. Winters and Arent (1969) did not use a control, but they reported that a significant percentage of parents and teachers with students in the program saw the program as being beneficial. Vassos (1971), also using self-report, stated that a big brother program was effective in improving student behavior in school.

Kern and Kirby (1971) investigated the use of fifth and sixth graders as co-helpers in group counseling with other fifth and sixth graders. In comparing the peer and counselor-led group against a counselor-only group and a no-contact control, it was found that the conjoint group significantly improved participants' school adjustment behaviors.

Quite obviously, the first two programs are really not peer counseling programs, since they utilize older students. The latter program, however, does give some evidence that peers can at least assist the counseling process. At this level it may be more of a modeling effect than true peer counseling. Thus, at this juncture there appears to be only meager support for peer programs in the elementary schools.

### CONCLUSIONS

The research reported here is meager, much more so than we expected to find. It is indeed unfortunate that more and better-designed research has not been reported in the literature, and if this review does nothing more, perhaps it will stimulate that very thing. Nonetheless, the research that has been reviewed here does seem to suggest some beneficial uses of peer counseling. The following recommendations are drawn from what appear to be the best-documented programs and deal with the selection of peers, training, and focus areas.

1. Effective peer counselors appear to be those who not only have a desire to help others but also have effective adjustment and interpersonal skills.

2. Peer counselors must be perceived by those they work with as potentially helpful persons. That is, they are expected to have experiences, skills, or knowledge appropriate to their clients' needs.

3. Research seems to indicate that peer counselors are more helpful when they are from the same ethnic and socioeconomic background as their clients. There is also some indication that peer counselors may be able to reach such groups not ordinarily inclined to seek counselors.

4. Training peer counselors has generally involved the development of interpersonal or human relations skills. Carkhuff's (1971) model for human relations training has been used extensively for this purpose. His publication *The Art of Helping* (1972) should also be a useful training tool.

5. Training should include one-to-one and/or group counseling experiences in informal situations, supplemented by the acquisition of appropriate information and knowledge of referral sources.

6. The peer counselor should always have access to a professional counselor for consultation or referral. The evidence at present does not warrant the use of peer counselors as a completely separate entity.

7. Peer counseling appears to be effective in the areas of academics (study habits, curriculum choice, educational goals), social-adjustment skills, and provision of information. Peer counselors are especially effective for students entering new academic environments.

8. In general, peer counselors and faculty who work with them report as much (or more) benefit and satisfaction with the peer counseling programs as do those persons the programs are designed to help.

9. Research on peer counseling has been almost exclusively short-term (e.g., one semester); the long-range effects of peer counseling are yet to be studied.

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# Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

*Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006.*

**Manpower Report of the President.** Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. 1974. 387 pp. \$3.85.

This big bargain of bountiful information was prepared jointly this year by the U.S. Department of Labor, previously the sole author, and HEW's Office of Education. Almost half the pages (each only a penny) are substantive narrative, the other half supplementary appendixes. Major topics cover employment/unemployment, manpower programs and their move toward decentralization, migration and "the new geography of employment," occupational opportunity patterns and changes, and the Work Incentive Program. Many subtopics could be required reading for personnel and guidance workers.

**Industrial Psychology** by Ernest J. McCormick and Joseph Tiffin. Sixth edition. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1974. 625 pp. \$12.50.

First published in 1942, this classic has been updated with new content and recent references (which would be more useful at chapter ends than as footnotes only). The content of industrial psychology is within the purview of P&G'ers: Major sections deal with "Personnel Selection and Evaluation," "The Organizational and Social Context of Human Work," "The Job and Work Situation," "Accidents and Human Errors," and "Psychological Aspects of Consumer Behavior." Pioneers and experts, the authors demonstrate professional perspective in presenting complexities and conflicts surrounding pertinent issues.

**Facilitative Teaching: Theory and Practice** by Joe Wittmer and Robert D. Myrick. Goodyear Publishing Co. Inc., 15113 Sunset Blvd., Pacific Palisades, California 90272. 1974. 169 pp. \$4.95 paperback.

The adept authors have put together what could have been a put-on adapted from others, facilely adopting the currently favored "facilitative" without substantive support. They do provide theoretical background as well as practical examples regarding the efficacy of a facilitative approach. The authors would doubtless apply to counselors their six characteristics of facilitative teachers: effective listening, genuineness, understanding, respect, intelligence, and skill in interpersonal communication. The numerous facilitative procedures described (if not prescribed) for teaching seem equally applicable to counseling and guidance.

**The Worker and the Job: Coping with Change** edited by Jerome M. Rosow. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1974. 208 pp. \$6.95 hardbound, \$2.45 paperback.

Distinction marks the authors and content of the seven chapters, prepared for one of the annual conferences sponsored by the American Assembly, "a national educational institution" affiliated with Columbia University. Former Assistant Secretary of Labor Rosow provides an introduction. Authors Ginzberg, Henle, Salpukas, Strauss, Walton, Yankelovich, and Zagoria cover such topics as the meaning of work, worker attitudes, union roles, restructuring of work, economic considerations, and policy implications. Lacking are the usual references to specific sources.



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**Assessment of Children's Intelligence** by Jerome M. Sattler. W. B. Saunders Company, West Washington Square, Philadelphia 19105. 1974. 526 pp. \$13.95.

Sattler and Saunders are to be commended on this high-quality, low-cost book, which is big in size, scope, and scholarship. Accompanied by an instructor's manual of multiple-choice questions for all 27 chapters, the book is intended for a course in individual intelligence testing. Extensive coverage is given the Stanford-Binet and Wechsler scales; six other tests are covered briefly. Intelligence pervades the author's treatment of such topics as examiner-examinee relationship, minority group children, other special children, diagnostic applications, and synthesis and reporting of test findings (less final than "results"). Plentiful tables give added aid to the reader.

**Small-Group Instruction: Theory and Practice** by Joseph A. Olmstead. Human Resources Research Organization, 300 N. Washington St., Alexandria, Virginia 22314. 1974. 129 pp. \$3.95 paperback.

The first HumRRO publication aimed at practitioners rather than researchers, this 7 x 10 book offers content of interest to P&G'ers, who will find help not only in the use of various methods but also in understanding rationales for their selection. Different case discussion methods are covered, as well as buzz sessions, role playing, conference method, and committee problem solving. Since the book is a combination of two earlier reports, its "analysis of the state of the art" may not be current.

**Sociology of Work and Occupations**, Vol. 1, No. 1. February 1974. Sage Publications, Inc. 275 S. Beverly Dr., Beverly Hills, California 90212. Pp. 1-128. Annual subscription (4 issues) \$20.00, professionals \$12.00, students \$9.00.

Published with the support of the University of Illinois, this "international journal" seems off to a good start, with a strong editorial board and substantive initial contents: five substantial articles, two book reviews, and an editorial. Worth the price of admission is a three-author, 28-page article on "Professions

and Their Plausibility," which stresses that "most professions are entering crises of plausibility." While streaking was a fast-passing phenomenon, "The Choice of Stripping for a Living" is a perennial concern outlined here in bleak profile.

**Compensation Administration** by David W. Belcher. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1974. 606 pp. \$12.95.

A revision of a book that appeared in two editions under the title *Wage and Salary Administration*, this comprehensively covers concepts and practices of concern to P&G'ers. While dealing essentially with economic aspects of employment, the author treats with authority such topics as nonfinancial rewards; employment as a transaction involving psychological, sociological, political, and ethical components; and "Behavioral Science Compensation Theory and Research," a long chapter highlighting the work of writers such as Caplow, Dubin, Herzberg, Maslow, and McClelland. Among the modern motivations of helping professionals is adequate compensation for services rendered by themselves and by their clients; toward that end, reading this book offers some initial compensation.

**We Can Have Better Marriages if We Really Want Them** by David Mace and Vera Mace. Abingdon Press, 201 Eighth Ave. South, Nashville, Tennessee 37202. 1974. 172 pp. \$5.95.

'Tis not an editorial We or a personal We, for the authors have themselves had a "better marriage" for 40 years. Wanting to help others achieve compatible partnerships that are more marital than martial, these pioneer marriage counselors have developed a program of "marriage enrichment" through encounter groups for couples. This small book with short chapters is a curious blend of the professional and the popular, the cutting edge and the conventional, the cool and the polemical. Anti-marriage writers are attacked, especially the author of *Marriage Is Hell*. Marriage is not seen as made in heaven, however, but something to be worked at "like a dog."

# CHARLES C THOMAS • PUBLISHER

**MEN AT WORK: Applications of Ergonomics to Performance and Design** by Roy J. Shephard, *Univ of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.* The topics covered range widely over the physiology and psychology of work, biomechanics, applied mathematics and human factors engineering and carry a unifying theme of matching design to human performance characteristics in the interests of both worker comfort and productivity. The psychological and physiological impacts of the working environment are also noted, and psychological, physical and physiological aspects of fatigue are discussed. The psychology of work is introduced by discussions of arousal, vigilance and the testing of personality. Motivation of the worker is related to current theories of industrial and social organization. Skinnerian concepts of the mind are applied to the teaching of specific skills, and the more practical problems of effective apprentice training are examined. '74, 408 pp. (6 3/4 x 9 3/4), 99 il., 8 tables, \$23.50

**ECOPHYSICS: The Application of Physics to Ecology** by James Paul Wesley, *Univ. of Missouri, Rolla.* Most clinicians consider stress to be an external force producing symptoms in their patients. Many researchers consider stress to be the results of an external stressor and consider it, in Selye's terms, to be a general adaptation syndrome. Engineers and some behavioral scientists consider that external loading leads to stress which is internal and which in turn is productive of internal strain. When a term is applied to behavior at work, these different meanings interfere with the clarity of communication and understanding across disciplinary lines. This book, like the conference on which it was based, presents the most widely held concepts of occupational stress. Psychiatric, psychoanalytic and psychophysiological considerations are included as are those which stem from role theory. '74, 368 pp., 39 il., 7 tables, cloth-\$19.75, paper-\$13.75

**THERAPEUTIC NEEDS OF THE FAMILY: Problems, Descriptions and Therapeutic Approaches.** Edited by Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond,* and John G. Cull, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville.* (15 Contributors) Both practical problem descriptions and theoretically-oriented material of academia are included in an effort by the editors to bridge the gap between these two areas in professional literature. The book covers the following topical areas: group work with distressed families, families in crisis, family crisis intervention, the child of divorce, family therapy in the treatment of adolescents with divorced parents, prediction of delinquent behavior, counseling the parent of the chronic delinquent, psychological management in the family and the dying child, separation counseling, alternatives to divorce and their implications, orgasmic problems—a counseling demonstration, counseling techniques and case study descriptions. '74, 256 pp., \$11.75

**PRESCRIPTIONS FOR CHILDREN WITH LEARNING AND ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS (2nd Ptg.)** by Ralph F. Blanco, *Temple Univ., Philadelphia.* Designed for clinical, school and educational psychologists to use as a desk reference and for graduate students to use as a text, this book is written for persons well versed in childhood exceptionality and psychopathology, and who are familiar with common diagnostic terms and etiological patterns. Emphasis is on learning and behavior problems in school and at home. The concepts presented are derived from psychodynamic reinforcement and need theory orientations. Techniques, curricular suggestions and remedial ideas are given for withdrawn and aggressive behaviors, stealing and negativism, suicidal and homicidal behaviors, problems resulting from blindness, deafness and brain injuries, retardation, the slow learner and learning disabilities, passive-aggressive behavior, underachievement and school phobia, and rivalry and anxiety. '74, 320 pp., \$9.25

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# Book Reviews

Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to the Editor, *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

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|                                                                                    |        |                                                                                               |        |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| <b>Behavioral Self-Control</b> by Carl E. Thoresen and Michael J. Mahoney          | p. 236 | <b>Learning at Work: Human Resources and Organizational Development</b> by Avica Saint        | p. 240 |
| <b>Contemporary Problems of Drug Abuse</b> edited by Peter A. Levin                | p. 237 | <b>Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach</b> by William F. Glueck                                  | p. 241 |
| <b>The School Counsellor</b> by Ken Williams                                       | p. 238 | <b>T-Groups and Therapy Groups in a Changing Society</b> by Dee G. Appley and Alvin E. Winder | p. 241 |
| <b>Five Lives at Harvard: Personality Change during College</b> by Stanley H. King | p. 239 |                                                                                               |        |

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**Behavioral Self-Control** by Carl E. Thoresen and Michael J. Mahoney. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974. 177 pp. \$3.65.

*Behavioral Self-Control* is not the kind of book to browse through in the hope of gaining a speaking acquaintance with behavioral methods. It is an outstanding review of the relevant research in the area of self-control, tied together in an orderly and understandable fashion. In addition, it offers a tentative behavioral framework for self-control.

Bandura comments in the foreword that the authors "present incisive analysis of self-regulative processes together with evidence bearing on the central issues." I am left with the feeling that the piling up of evidence was allowed to dominate this work to the detriment of the authors' incisive analysis, which is found only here and there under the pile.

Into 144 pages of text, plus additional material, Thoresen and Mahoney manage to cram an unbelievable wealth of material, included under such topics as self-observation, self-reward, self-punishment and aversive self-regulation, and covert self-control. Mixed well with a treatment of methodologi-

cal issues and an introductory and a summary chapter, the end result is a thorough, comprehensive coverage of behavioral self-control. It is difficult to resist pointing out that such an accomplishment must have required considerable restraint and willpower on the authors' part.

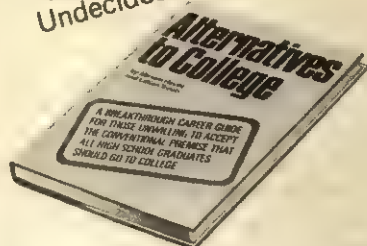
Even so, some related areas are conspicuous by their lack of treatment. Biofeedback, focused attention, self-hypnosis, and autogenic training are alluded to as offering "much promise as self-controlling strategies." The authors' rationale for their omission sounds more like rationalization. The coverage of other areas—methodological problems, for example—is repetitious in nature. It is also somewhat disappointing to find so little in the way of references involving the use of self-control methods in the area of interpersonal relations. The focus is primarily on studies dealing with such chronic negative behaviors as alcoholism, obesity, and smoking.

The discussion of the pragmatics of self-control is worthy of note. The authors comment that the "inexpensiveness and portabil-



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ity" of self-control methods are certainly pragmatic advantages is a subtle sledgehammer that reminds counselors of any leaning that clients may be, and probably should be, the best possible agents of their own behavior change. However, attempts to provide for a rapprochement of behavioristic and humanistic viewpoints are laudable but not particularly convincing.

In total, I feel that this book has something considerable to offer counselors and researchers. Its message is an exciting one: Free individuals can become personal scientists capable of investigating and altering the determinants of their actions.—Warren R. Seymour, *University of Missouri—Columbia*.

**Contemporary Problems of Drug Abuse** edited by Peter A. Levin. Acton, Massachusetts: Publishing Sciences Group Inc., 1974. 196 pp. \$14.95.

A good way to prevent drug abuse is to prepare and disseminate information about drugs and their use, right? Not really, say the experts. In a chapter on education we read that "there is no evidence that our massive

drug-abuse education effort has worked. In fact, it has backfired on us and the full consequences have not yet been calculated" (p. 168). A moratorium is recommended.

The biggest problem in drug abuse is addiction and crime caused by hard drugs, right? Not really, say the experts. In chapters on advertising and problems, they make it clear that the biggest problem is the drug business—the amalgamation of drug manufacturers, distributors, retailers, advertisers, and salespeople who promote the indiscriminate use of pills for tensions, aches, and pain and who endorse alcohol and tobacco for use as social lubricators.

Our drug abuse legislation is based on informed medical and legal testimony, right? (By now you answer "not really," knowing that many will answer "right.") In chapters on marihuana, history, and civil liberties, we find that national drug legislation arose out of ignorance, fear, and attempts to control minority group members by relating drug-caused crimes to particular groups. Present legislation that prohibits marihuana but permits alcohol and nicotine is little improvement.

## CURRENT PSYCHOTHERAPIES

Raymond J. Corsini, editor

Summarizes the current status of the 12 major schools of thought in psychotherapy. Each is considered in a separate chapter written by an expert and following a common format that includes history, theory, personality, psychotherapy, applications, and case examples.

Contributors include Rudolf Dreikurs, Albert Ellis, Reuben Fine, Eugene T. Gendlin, William Glasser, Alan Goldstein, Glen A. Holland, Yoram Kaufmann, Walter Kempler, Betty D. Meador, Harold H. Mosak, Carl R. Rogers, William C. Schutz, Frederick C. Thorne, Edward C. Whitmont, Leonard M. Zunin.

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If you found yourself thinking "right" to the preceding statements, here is information that can help you clarify issues, causes, and solutions to the drug abuse problem. This book is an outgrowth of a 1973 national symposium held at the Villanova School of Law, at which physicians, lawyers, and other experts presented the latest in research and informed thinking on problems of drug abuse. Though the symposium was called to educate members of the legal and medical professions, the summary of that symposium—this book—should prove to be of great interest to P&G JOURNAL readers.

Counselors will not find advice for dealing with drug users, nor will they find evidence supporting the effectiveness of drug counseling or treatment services. As a matter of fact, the experts express concern about possible negative effects of massive economic and personnel assaults on drug abuse. But readers will find informed thinking about issues that have clouded discussion on drug-related problems.

Though there is little in it that is comforting, the book makes fascinating reading and

should lead to an enlightened position regarding problems of drug abuse.—*Josiah S. Dilley, University of Wisconsin—Madison.*

**The School Counsellor** by Ken Williams. London: Methuen, 1973. 131 pp. \$2.00.

Ten years ago there were no British books on counseling in education. The rapid growth of counseling in Britain over the last few years, however, has brought in its wake a spate of such books, from practicing counselors in secondary schools (Holden, Jones), in further and higher education (Palmer, Newsome and others, Milner), and from those responsible for training counselors (Lytton and Craft, Hughes).

This latest outline of the role of the school counselor is by Ken Williams, who has experience as both a practitioner and a trainer—a rare combination at this stage of our development. His book may be of interest to an American audience not least for its emphasis on the counselor's role as a facilitator of helping relationships within the school. Williams does not see counseling as being confined to one-to-one relationships within the counselor's office. He attaches major importance to the counselor's work with teachers and with pupils, which will develop their own helping skills. English teachers' expectation that they will have a "pastoral care" role, however poorly they may perform it in practice, makes this approach not only politically necessary but also (hopefully) realistically feasible.

In many ways, however, the book is unsatisfactory. It is at its strongest when Williams is describing incidents and cases from his own experience; he is clearly a counselor of great warmth and sensitivity. But instead of forming the core of the book, these experiences are used only intermittently to illustrate some of the general points being made, and the intellectual fiber of the general argument is not tough enough. Assumptions go unquestioned; supporting evidence for assertions is offered only occasionally and even then is not always convincing; and the argument frequently becomes disjointed and meandering. There is, for example, little discussion of the crucial tensions and conflicts between teachers' responsibility to their clients and to the institution in which they work. It is often

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difficult not to feel that—whether Williams admits it to himself or not—his client-centered approach may ultimately only be the means to institution-centered ends.

As an introductory text for those who want to know what school counseling in Britain is about, the book is of some value. It also has the merits of being short and readable. But judged at any level higher than this, it is of limited interest.—*A. G. Watts, Careers Research and Advisory Centre, Cambridge, England.*

**Five Lives at Harvard: Personality Change during College** by Stanley H. King. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1973. 219 pp. \$7.95.

This book might have had greater impact if it had been published in 1966 instead of 1973. It is a report of some of the data collected in the Harvard Student Study, a project investigating the personality development of young men who entered Harvard College in 1960 and 1961. A statement on the jacket seems misleading, as it implies that the Harvard Student Study covered the period of the

late 1960s. The author acknowledges that the social-political climate of college campuses, including Harvard, underwent significant change during the last half of the decade, but he does not explain the delay in publication. He does suggest that the process of personality development as described may be generalized to today's students.

Contained in this volume are five case studies, derived from interviews, paper-and-pencil tests, and projective tests. The five cases were selected as representative of a group of 41 students who underwent the total process of data collection. This group was, in turn, a random sample of 600 freshmen who were selected for the longitudinal study. The author skillfully intertwines the presentation of the design of the study and its major findings and conclusions with the detailed descriptions of the five case studies. The first two chapters provide a background against which the reader can understand the context within which the "Five Lives" are described. In addition, after presenting the first case in chapter 3, the author follows it with a chapter that analyzes the subject in terms of the issues



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outlined in chapter 2. Finally, the concluding chapter compares all five cases on the significant dimensions of the study and seeks to point out how they are representative of the patterns of personality development discovered in the total sample.

One notable contribution of this book is the formulation and description of a model for observing and analyzing personality development in the college years. The model is clinical and psychoanalytic. However, it is not based on data from clinical patients but from so-called normal, functioning subjects. Whether or not it is applicable to male students from a broader spectrum of colleges and universities may be the subject of speculation by the reader. It seems obvious that the potential number of cases needed to illustrate the full range of male college students would be much higher.

This book is fascinating to read and will appeal to persons who are interested in its methodology, in its description of personality change in the college years, or both.—*Forest E. Tate, Indiana State University, Terre Haute.*

**Learning at Work: Human Resources and Organizational Development** by Avice Saint. Chicago: Nelson-Hall Company, 1974. 332 pp. \$10.00.

Although occupational training and personnel development is one of the major concerns of business management, there are remarkably few books that deal adequately with the subject. This is one of the better ones, and while it is directed primarily at organization practitioners, it should be quite interesting

and informative for those in the career counseling and guidance fields. The author focuses on learning in the work situation and is concerned primarily with personal growth and development.

In clear and readable language, Saint brings together the basic issues of the training-learning process and relates them to the problems of helping organizations and employees to adjust to changes in work and in the work environment. To accomplish this task the author presents a basic input-output model of productive learning. She explores the model in methodical detail by use of case studies of the training practices of five organizations, three in private industry and two in government.

What can a career counselor or an administrator of a vocational guidance program obtain from this exposition? A good deal, I think. First, the book offers valuable insights into the current trends in industry and government toward a total job/whole person approach to human resource utilization. It illustrates graphically how people are being employed for careers rather than for specific jobs and are encouraged to follow highly mobile patterns of progression rather than fixed and narrow lines of promotion.

Second, the case studies in the appendix will give those in the guidance field a firsthand application of how modern business and government organizations are working to solve problems on their own, such as improving employee competence by some means other than expecting the educational system to provide fully developed people.

And finally, counselors, particularly those in academic settings, will find many good tips on how to evaluate and renew their own educational efforts.

This is not to say that the book is completely faultless. I found the author's tendency to restate the obvious a little tedious at times. Some chapters seem to me superfluous, such as the one entitled "The Man at the Top," which makes the obvious point that without top management support, the training effort will run into difficulty. Notwithstanding these lapses, the book remains one of the very few that treat the issues of organization and manpower development in a lucid and systematic fashion.—*Felix M. Lopez, Felix M. Lopez & Associates, Inc., Port Washington, New York.*

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# PRACTICAL COUNSELING IN THE SCHOOLS

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Long Island University.

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*To be published:* Spring 1975. About 640 Pages.  
Clothbound. About \$10.95.

WM. C. BROWN COMPANY PUBLISHERS  
2460 Kerper Boulevard, Dubuque, Iowa 52001

**Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach** by William F. Glueck. Dallas: Business Publications, Inc., 1974. 666 pp. \$12.50.

Nothing is so attractive as that which is in accord with one's own ideas. This book is a comprehensive and straightforward approach to personnel administration. Too many personnel administration texts leave one with the feeling that the authors never worked in the personnel area or that, if they did, it was thirty years ago.

This text includes material on OSHA, EEOC, OFCC Cost Benefit Analysis, Human Resource Accounting, and other up-to-date topics. It contains 20 chapters, which are grouped into 9 parts: "Introduction"; "Determining Personnel Needs"; "Attracting, Selecting and Assigning Personnel"; "Career Development—I"; "Career Development—II"; "Direct Compensation"; "Indirect Compensation"; "Personnel and Groups of Employees"; and "Control of Human Performance."

I see its best use as a text for courses in personnel administration. It would be of

great interest to a beginning personnel practitioner, but probably not of interest to an experienced personnel manager. Although it is comprehensive, it is not detailed enough in most areas to supply information an experienced manager would need. Counselors would find it a good description of the personnel function and of the types of jobs that are developing in the personnel sector.—  
*R. T. Ramsay, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.*

**T-Groups and Therapy Groups in a Changing Society** by Dee G. Appley and Alvin E. Winder. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1973. 209 pp. \$9.50.

For the beginning professional counselor who wants to get an adequate review of the literature on group work over the last 30 years, I recommend this book as a good text. The authors do a fine job of contrasting the differences between therapy groups and T-groups historically, theoretically, and for the training of group therapists and T-group trainers. The book can also be useful to counselor educators who wish to review the tenets of group therapy and T-groups.

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The chapter on training groups is particularly helpful, containing material that has been successfully used by experienced group trainers. I did not find the chapter on therapy groups as helpful in providing usable information for beginning group therapists.

This chapter seems too brief and too narrow in focus, based almost entirely on a psychoanalytic approach. The authors contrast the roles of group therapists and T-group leaders as help-giving and help-sharing, respectively. They also emphasize that T-groups are "here-and-now" and focus on problem solving and transfer of learning, whereas therapy groups are concerned with deep conflicts, reconstruction of the nuclear family, and transference solutions. I find that there is overlap of both systems in almost all group work in schools, colleges, and mental health agencies, so that a dichotomous breakdown is not as easy as one is led to believe from this book.

I think that the book is somewhat limited in scope and that it leaves out other important types of groups on the current scene. There is no discussion of encounter groups, core groups, gay groups, or group approaches for ethnic minorities. Group work has been primarily a middle-class elite phenomenon, and that aspect is reflected in this book.

The material covered is very readable, however, and the bibliographical information is very comprehensive and useful to the researcher as well as the neophyte leader of various types of professional groups. I found the book useful and an important contribution to the field, especially the preparation of T-group leaders. I will be considering it as a text in my own course in group dynamics.

—Charles H. Merrill, California State College  
—Sonoma, Rohnert Park.



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number 4

December 1974

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THE PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL is the official journal of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. It is directed to the mutual interests of counselors and personnel workers at all educational levels from kindergarten to higher education, in community agencies, and in government, business, and industry. Membership in APGA includes a subscription to the JOURNAL.

**Manuscripts:** Submit manuscripts to the Editor according to the guidelines that appear in every issue of the JOURNAL.

**Subscriptions:** Available to nonmembers at \$20 per year. Send payment with order to Leola Moore, Subscription Manager, APGA.

**Change of Address:** Notices should be sent at least six weeks in advance to Address Change, APGA. Undelivered copies resulting from address changes will not be replaced; subscribers should notify the post office that they will guarantee second class forwarding postage. Other claims for undelivered copies must be made within four months of publication.

**Reprints:** Available in lots of 50 from Publications Sales, APGA. Back issues: \$2.00 per single copy for current volume and four volumes immediately preceding from Publications Sales, APGA. Single issues of earlier volumes Available from Walter J. Johnson, Inc., 111 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10003. Bound volumes: Available from Publications Sales, APGA. Microfilm: University Microfilms, Inc., 315 North First Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48107.

**Indexing:** The JOURNAL's annual index is published in the June issue. The JOURNAL is listed in *Education Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *College Student Personnel Abstracts*, *Sociology of Education Abstracts*, *Personnel Abstracts*, *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, *Mental Health Book Review Index*, *Poverty and Human Resources*, *Exceptional Child Education Abstracts*, and *Employment Relations Abstracts*. Book reviews are indexed in *Book Review Index*.

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Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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# Carl Rogers: Humanistic Innovation in Education

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# Paras, Peers, and Pros

Guest editor: Ursula Delworth

## **249 The Story Behind This Special Issue**

LEO GOLDMAN

## **250 The Paraprofessionals Are Coming!**

URSULA DELWORTH

# **The Paraprofessional Movement**

## **253 The Paraprofessional Movement in Perspective**

ALAN GARTNER and FRANK RIESSMAN

*Frank Riessman and Arthur Pearl are the "fathers" of the New Careers movement. They and Alan Gartner have probably written, spoken, studied, and organized more in the paraprofessional movement during the past ten years than any other people in the country. It seems fitting that Gartner and Riessman should talk about where the movement is and how it got there.*

## **257 Effectiveness of Paraprofessionals: The Evidence**

WILLIAM F. BROWN

*Brown states that "paraprofessional counselors can and do contribute meaningfully to the improved adjustment of their clients." In this article he carefully reviews the evidence for this assertion, takes a hard look at the state of research, and points to the problems yet to be solved.*

## **264 Paraprofessionals and Social Change**

ARTHUR PEARL

*Pearl is a unique teacher because he never lets his students get away with looking at only part of the picture. Here he provides a global view of the "real world" in which paraprofessional programs exist—and suggests what we can do about it.*

Photos in this issue: p. 252, Leon Sieg; p. 253, Phillip Johnson; p. 257, Philo Photos; p. 270, Colorado State University Audio-Visual Department; p. 271, R. J. P. Lyon; p. 276, Suzanne Crosby; p. 281, Leon Sieg; p. 285, Colorado State University Audio-Visual Department; p. 289, Joan Rosenwach; p. 294, Martin Studio; p. 298, Frank Rudiger; p. 299, Anthony R. D'Augelli; p. 304 (top), Carl E. Young Enterprises; p. 304 (bottom), JET Studio Limited; p. 308, Colorado State University Photo Lab; p. 315, Kent Austin; p. 319 (top), Armando Mema; p. 319 (bottom), Masterson's Studios; p. 335 and 338, Gerald S. Volgenau

Cover photo: Frank Rudiger

Interior design: Judy Wall

## Programs

### 271 Training Adolescents as Peer Counselors

BARBARA B. VARENHORST

High school students counseling their peers—revolutionary! Yes, it is, and Varenhorst and her associates are making it work in California's public schools.

### 276 Paraprofessionals in a Large-Scale University Program

EDMUND E. ALLEN

Allen has developed and implemented a large and highly effective paraprofessional program. In this article he shares his views on "how to get there" and what to keep in mind along the way.

### 281 Volunteers in a Community Mental Health Agency

JOHN NICOLETTI and LOTTIE FLATER-BENZ

Volunteerism has a poor reputation these days, because many human service programs have "used" volunteers and given them nothing in return. Nicoletti and Flater-Benz discuss a different approach, one in which both service recipients and volunteers gain.

### 285 Paraprofessionals in Minority Programs

LUCINDA E. THOMAS and RICHARD L. YATES

Racism still abounds on the college campus. Thomas and Yates have implemented two paraprofessional programs in an attempt to alleviate this problem. Their work speaks to all persons involved in human service delivery systems.

### 289 The Development of Paraprofessionals in Employment Work

JESSE E. GORDON

Whatever happened to paraprofessionals in employment work? Gordon outlines the rise, the service, and the decline of paraprofessional involvement in this area. There's a lesson about social change here!

### 294 Paraprofessionals in a Drug Education Program

EDWARD H. RUDOW

As drug education programs have proliferated, paraprofessionals have played an important role in their services. Rudow gives an example of a program staffed almost entirely by paraprofessionals.

(Contents continued on following page)



# Training

## 299 The Current Status of Paraprofessional Training

STEVEN J. DANISH and GREGORY W. BROCK

Paraprofessionals don't arrive on the job equipped with all the knowledge and skills needed for effective service, although we often seem to assume that they do. Danish and Brock discuss four systematic methods that have proven successful in the training of paraprofessionals and give readers some guidelines for choosing methods that are most appropriate for their own programs.

## 304 Associate Degree Programs for Human Services Workers

JOHN E. TRUE and CARLE E. YOUNG

What's happening in training programs on campus? And where do the graduates go? True and Young's pioneer work in the Center for Human Services Research provides many of the answers. True's paraprofessional training program at Purdue University was the first established in higher education, and he has gone on to study systematically the results of the numerous programs that have developed in the past decade.

## 308 Training Professionals to Work with Paraprofessionals

MARV MOORE

Effective training for paraprofessionals is only half the story. Moore delineates the other half: teaching professionals to train, supervise, and work with paraprofessionals.

# The Paraprofessionals

## 315 The Paraprofessional as Administrator: An Innovative Role

ROBERT T. DeMOSS

What can the paraprofessional do? Among other things, the paraprofessional can play a viable role in the administration of counseling services. DeMoss tells how he's doing this—and what the experience means to him.

## 319 The New Professional Emerges

FRANK FAVELA and ZOLTAN FUZESEY

A paraprofessional and a professional team up to look at the best and the worst in current human service, and they challenge us to support the evolution of the "new professional."

## 324 Paraprofessionals Speak Out: What It's All About

by ten paraprofessionals

We professionals have said a great deal about paraprofessionals, and in the two previous articles paras have spoken for themselves. In this article ten more paraprofessionals from around the country discuss their perspectives on their work, their ideas, their lives.

# Summing Up

## 335 Paraprofessionals as Guerrillas: Recommendations for System Change

URSULA DELWORTH

I have worked with paraprofessionals in public schools, in colleges, in communities, and in New Careers programs. I'm obviously enthusiastic, but I also know that paraprofessional programs don't always work. Here's my analysis of what still needs to be done.

# the story behind this special issue

In the following pages, guest editor Ursula Delworth and her colleagues tell us why this Special Issue is important, so there is no need for me to add anything on that subject. However, I thought it might be interesting for readers to know *how* this issue came about.

It started back in August 1971, just about three years to the day before I wrote this introduction. At that time I received a letter from one Ursula Delworth suggesting that P&G plan a Special Issue on paraprofessionals. She was then on the staff of the Counseling Center at Colorado State University, and her assignment included coordination of the paraprofessional programs there.

As is my wont, I threw the ball back to her, writing that we would welcome a proposal for such an issue for review by the Editorial Board. I heard nothing more from Ursula, but during the next two years I became acquainted with some of her writing and thinking and as a result nominated her for membership on the P&G Editorial Board.

At that point in her life, the pieces fell into place. First, she had become one of the top authorities on the paraprofessional and new professional movements, as an innovator, trainer, evaluator, and critic. Second, through a job change, she now had the kind of time flexibility and staff assistance that made it possible for her to consider serving as guest editor of a Special Issue.

The rest happened very quickly. In February 1974 we received a well-organized, detailed proposal from Ursula for this Special Issue, and the Editorial Board quickly approved it. Then, because we feared that the 1974-1975 Special Issues and Special Features might all be piling up during the last few months of the year, I prevailed upon Ursula to accept an unusually early target date so that we could spread our Specials a bit more evenly throughout the volume. Two months after we gave Ursula the green light to go ahead with the issue, she sent us a set of first drafts. The rest went equally fast, and in fine quality too.

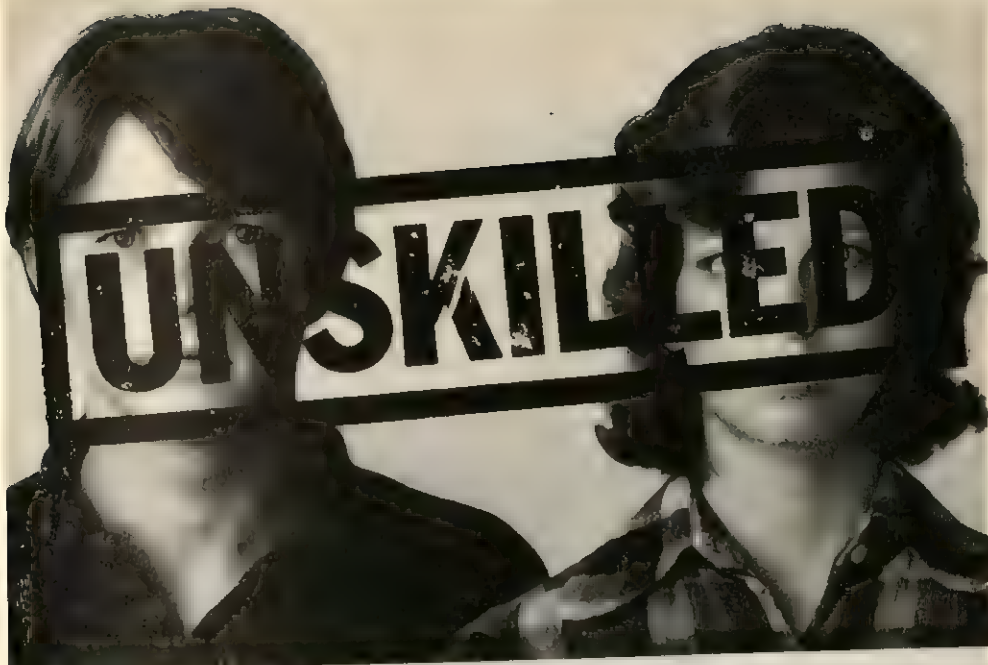
So here is P&G's look at this important recent development in our field. Will it be important? What should we be doing about it? This issue provides us with much of the kind of information we need in order to answer these and other questions. It is now for us individually and collectively to decide and to act. ■ *Leo Goldman, Editor*

# the paraprofessionals are coming!

"The paraprofessionals are coming!" wrote Ralph Simon of the National Institute of Mental Health in the sixties. Well, they're here. They are called peer counselors, mental health technicians, guidance assistants, and a hundred other names. The term "paraprofessional" has become as difficult to define as the term "professional." In this Special Issue we are defining paraprofessionals as persons who are selected, trained, and given responsibility for performing functions generally performed by professionals. They do not possess the requisite education or credentials to be considered professionals in the field in which they are working, but they do perform tasks central to the function of the agency (counseling, group work, etc.). They are usually paid for their work, but they may participate in volunteer programs if they meet the other criteria of this definition.

We have attempted in this issue to present an accurate picture of the state of the art, to give an overview of viable programs in counseling and human services, and to address training issues. We have also given paraprofessionals an opportunity to speak for themselves and discuss what the paraprofessional experience means to them. Our hope is that this issue will provide a glimpse of the potential of the paraprofessional movement for improving and revitalizing counseling and all human services. ■ *Ursula Delworth, Guest Editor*





## It's a terrifying word.

We don't think we have to belabor that point with any guidance counselor. Today, the young people who have to face life without post-high school technical and/or academic training are handicapped. Worse yet, if that need is allowed to continue through early adulthood it can become a lifelong disability.

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# the paraprofessional movement



# the paraprofessional movement in perspective

In 1969 Minuchin wrote, "For many professionals, a very important major assumption was . . . that we could maintain intact the traditional conceptualizations of mental illness and treatment, simply fitting the nonprofessional into the already existing structure of delivery service. But the inclusion of paraprofessionals in the existing structure of delivery of service brought to a head a bipolarity of approaches to mental illness which was already incipient in the field" (p. 726). The bipolarity refers to the activist, sociological emphasis on the one hand and the more traditional, internally oriented medical model on the other. The inclusion of paraprofessionals in human services has raised this central issue, and it is only one of many issues and concerns that we must address and resolve as the paraprofessional movement gains strength.

Alan Gartner  
Frank Riessman

*Alan Gartner (right) and Frank Riessman (left) are Professors of Education at Queens College of the City University of New York and are, respectively, publisher and editor of the Social Policy magazine.*



## THE PARAPROFESSIONAL MOVEMENT

The paraprofessional movement caught hold in the sixties. At least five major reasons can be identified as instrumental in the movement's development.

- Consumers, particularly the poor and minorities, were troubled by the inadequacies of traditional service delivery and by the reluctance of professionals to understand their needs—both physical and psychological.



- There was a recognition that the poor were locked out of achieving professional status by traditional credentialing paths, which required long periods of education prior to job placement.

- Professionals, who at first felt highly criticized by the poor and minority communities and were reluctant to accept paraprofessionals, soon accepted them gladly as a buffer. The paraprofessional was sometimes called a bridge to the poor. In a sense, the paraprofessional was the lesser of two evils, the other "evil" being the poor or minority consumer who was highly critical of teachers, social workers, and other human service professionals.

- There was a need for jobs, and the traditional private sector was not providing them. Consequently, the idea that people possessing a community understanding and background could begin working with very minimal training was a positive aspect of the paraprofessional movement and was used to generate needed jobs.

- In some cases, particularly in terms of service delivery in poor neighborhoods, there was a shortage in human power that paraprofessionals could fill.

The paraprofessional movement has a highly redistributive aspect, since poor people and minorities have obtained the opportunity to acquire jobs, education, credentials, and service in greater proportion than they had before.

## **NEW CAREERS AND NEW PROFESSIONALS**

There are a number of movements and approaches to the utilization of paraprofessionals; one is New Careers (Pearl & Riessman 1965). While New Careers has a number of dimensions, one of its most important objectives is to change the professions and the professionals in the human fields—health, education, wel-

fare, corrections, mental health, and so on (Gartner & Riessman 1972). One can think of the New Careers concept as a series of hypotheses about who is able to do human service work and with what impact. The concept suggests that new people prepared in ways different from the traditional professional model will become "new professionals." At one level this means new people doing the traditional work well; at another level it may mean doing the traditional work in new ways or doing new work entirely.

To a considerable extent, it is now taken for granted that persons without formal preparation and traditional credentials can do significant human service work—not just relieve the professional of scut work. This, of course, was not always the case; the opposite view prevailed at the start of New Careers and other paraprofessional programs. Paraprofessionals across a broad range of fields have since taken on—with considerable success—direct service work in education, health, social services, family planning, drug abuse prevention, urban planning, police work, and corrections (Gartner 1971). But the New Careers concept incorporated more: It asserted that persons from low-income communities, particularly minorities, could through career advancement programs become effective professionals.

The largest single group of former paraprofessionals who are now professionals are the graduates of the Career Opportunities Program (COP), a U.S. Office of Education activity begun in 1969 and involving 132 projects located in 48 states. To date, some 2,000 persons have graduated from the program, that is, have mounted a "career ladder" with increasing responsibility and salary while working at a full-time salary in a public school. The participants have attended colleges and universities (272 nationwide) and earned a baccalaureate degree and a teacher's license. Data on COP's first 536 graduates show that they are

predominantly adult, low-income, non-white women; and those who earn a degree in COP projects are typical of those enrolled in the program. The great majority of these graduates are now teaching, primarily in schools serving low-income children. Sufficient data are not yet available to indicate fully the effect of COP graduates as teachers, but preliminary reports from a number of school districts indicate that in terms of both their school know-how and their impact on children, COP graduates perform as well as or better than other first-year teachers (Smith 1973).

### ACHIEVEMENTS AND FAILURES

One of the most important achievements of the paraprofessional movement in general and of New Careers in particular has been its facilitating the widespread acceptance of the fact that poor people—many of them living on welfare for a long time and lacking education, training, and credentials—could very quickly be trained to provide useful service. This new recognition is no minor item, in light of the standard "culture of poverty" view of the poor (Riessman 1974).

We have also seen increased acceptance and utilization of peers, or "indigenous persons," in colleges, public schools, and other human service agencies. As a society, we are becoming more convinced that many people can provide services to those who need them and that these service providers do not have to possess credentials and advanced degrees.

This awareness is the forerunner to increasing large-scale public service employment programs—programs that would provide jobs for millions of people, largely in public service practice. The paraprofessional movement has served as a model for a good number of public service employment bills that have been introduced in the Congress in re-

cent years (Gartner, Nixon & Riessman 1973). The private sector is obviously unable to meet the demand for full employment in our society, and we must, in the last analysis, lean on job creation in the public sector. Here the paraprofessional model has played a major role in helping us to understand that people who were once "locked out" can perform jobs that are meaningful to them and that provide a valuable service to the community and the society. This is an extremely important dimension in changing the consciousness about "make work," that is, jobs that are just jobs for the employee but provide nothing useful for the society. In addition, of course, the fact that five hundred thousand to a million people have acquired jobs as paraprofessionals is no minor accomplishment, and the data indicating that their involvement has led to improved human services are also significant (Gartner, Nixon & Riessman 1973).

Paraprofessionals, however, have not produced a tremendous leap in service productivity or a reorganization of the service, nor have they been a powerful radical force for change in the agencies and the society. Rather, these former consumers, as they become workers, reflect the typical worker-consumer dialectic (Gartner & Riessman 1974). As consumers they are concerned very much about the nature of the service they are receiving, but as workers they are concerned with typical worker issues—salaries, fringe benefits, their own education, training advancement, and so on. This is sometimes described as co-optation; that is, the paraprofessionals come to resemble professionals and make the demands typical of union members. We think this is far too simplistic an explanation. Schools, agencies, human service practices, and professionals have changed as a result of paraprofessional involvement. It is a two-way process. In some ways paraprofessionals resemble other students in colleges and

other professionals in agencies, and in some ways they are very different, reflecting their community identification and their life history. While their attitude and consciousness may not be radical, their very presence in agencies and schools affects the atmosphere and practice there.

## CONCLUSION

In order to understand the paraprofessional in the present climate, a number of things must be remembered. First, the climate now is much more conservative than it was in the sixties, and practically all the movements of the sixties have quieted down. Second, the paraprofessional is a worker, and the worker role defines many of the individual's goals. Some of these goals are far less progressive in orientation than the consumer role, with its concern for such things as the improvement of service. Third, paraprofessionals are being socialized by the agencies, professionals, institutions, and colleges with which they are associated and by the training they are receiving. But paraprofessionals remain a complicated mixture of their past and their community ties. Moreover, their present role requires them to keep some distance between themselves and the professionals and to maintain some sense of community identification, since this is the *raison d'être* for their being in the

system. These factors, plus their life experience and traditions, limit the degree of socialization and co-optation that can occur. A look at paraprofessionals almost anywhere in the country will reveal that they maintain distinct identities, particularly in life style and ethos. Thus, rather than seeing the new paraprofessionals as becoming miniature "old" professionals, we view them as a blend of the old and the new—affecting human service systems and being affected by them. ■

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# effectiveness of paraprofessionals: the evidence

The paraprofessional movement has developed as a direct consequence of the steadily increasing demand for counseling services and the shortage of professionally trained personnel to provide the needed assistance. Beginning in the mid-sixties, the successful use of paraprofessionals in a wide range of counseling roles has been reported in the literature with ever increasing frequency. Extensive evidence has been presented concerning the effectiveness of paraprofessional counselors in community and anti-poverty programs (Gartner 1969; Gordon 1965; Reiff & Riessman 1965), in mental hospitals and outpatient clinics (Carkhuff 1969; Carkhuff & Truax 1965; Ellsworth 1968; Magoon & Golann 1966), and on school and college campuses (Brown 1972; Cowen, Zax & Laird 1966; Persons et al. 1973).

Professional reaction to the paraprofessional movement has taken two principal directions. Many writers have reported the meaningful contributions made by selected paraprofessionals and have stressed the unique advantages of using them, under supervision, in almost all aspects of the counseling process (Carkhuff 1969; Delworth, Sherwood & Casaburri 1974; Gordon 1965; Reiff 1966; Reiff & Riessman 1965). Other writers have warned about the practical and legal dangers of lowering professional standards and have recommended that paraprofessionals be restricted to "routine" duties that will free professionals from clerical and other menial tasks (Odgers 1964; Patterson

## William F. Brown

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1965; Rosenbaum 1966; Schlossberg 1967).

The initial policy of the American Personnel and Guidance Association (1967) and the American Rehabilitation Counseling Association (1968) was to urge the restriction of paraprofessionals to such clerical assistance activities as gathering and processing occupational information, administering and scoring routine standardized tests, and performing other specifically identified subfunctions of the counselor's role. Both these professional organizations argued against the use of such support personnel in any manner that would replace the professional counselor in the counseling role itself. Concurrently, the American Psychological Association (Hoch, Ross & Winder 1965) adopted a somewhat less cautious position and suggested that psychology ought to keep an open mind and let the results speak for themselves. Because the results have been speaking for themselves, very positively and very loudly, APGA recently adopted a much more receptive position toward the role of paraprofessionals. The recent publication of two monographs (Delworth, Sherwood & Casaburri 1974; North Texas State University 1973) and a collection of reprints (Zimpfer 1974) dealing with the training and utilization of paraprofessionals provides ample evidence of APGA's changing policy.

#### **RESEARCH ON PARAPROFESSIONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

A review of the literature of the past fifteen years reveals numerous published reports on the effective use of paraprofessional counselors. Most of these studies, however, are plagued with the design inadequacies that characterize much of the research published in educational and psychological journals. For example, a recent survey (Gruver 1971) revealed that fewer than 25 percent of the reports on paraprofessional

counseling have compared experimental with control samples, used both pre- and post-assessment, or employed objective rather than subjective criteria. Also, only a few of the studies attempted to isolate independent variables through matching of experimental and control conditions or to collect adequate follow-up data to check on the possibility of Hawthorne effect.

Another problem in reviewing the literature on paraprofessional counseling is that the studies are very dissimilar in terms of the training and remuneration received by the paraprofessionals and the counseling duties and work loads assigned to them. The client populations receiving the counseling are likewise extremely diverse, as are the settings in which the counseling was provided.

Although the dearth of well-controlled research is distressing, the number and variety of studies reported during the past fifteen years do, collectively, provide compelling evidence as to the effectiveness of paraprofessional counseling. While no one of these studies is conclusive by itself, the body of evidence derived from so many different sources, employing greatly diverse methods and indexes, leads to the conclusion that paraprofessional counselors can and do contribute meaningfully to the improved adjustment of their clients.

While most of the studies exhibit serious design deficiencies, a few of the reported investigations were sufficiently well designed to meet the basic requirements for valid scientific inquiry. Research programs directed by Carkhuff and his associates (Carkhuff 1968, 1969; Carkhuff & Truax 1965; Truax & Carkhuff 1967; Truax & Lister 1970) in mental health settings and by this author and his associates (Brown 1965, 1972; Brown, Garcia & Garcia 1970; Brown, Wehe, Haslam & Zunker 1971; Zunker & Brown 1966) in academic settings demonstrated the effectiveness of paraprofessionals in ongoing programs de-

signed to achieve specified counseling objectives.

Together and separately, Carkhuff and Truax conducted a series of investigations into the effectiveness of paraprofessional counseling in ongoing treatment programs for hospitalized neuropsychiatric patients and rehabilitation center residents. Using indexes of behavioral improvement as criteria, the paraprofessional counselors were found to have achieved a level of therapeutic effectiveness only slightly below that of the experienced counselors and considerably above that of the graduate student trainees. From their findings, Carkhuff and Truax drew the following conclusions: (a) lengthy professional training is not a necessary prerequisite for effective functioning as a therapist; (b) individuals possessing such personal characteristics as nonpossessive warmth, interpersonal sensitivity, empathic understanding, and overt genuineness can rapidly develop therapeutic skills; and (c) paraprofessionals receiving limited training can be just as effective as professionals in facilitating constructive client change over relatively short periods of time.

### PARAPROFESSIONALS IN ACADEMIC SETTINGS

During the past fifteen years, this author and his associates have completed a series of investigations into the effectiveness of paraprofessional counseling on school and college campuses. In the initial investigation (Brown 1965), 216 freshmen<sup>1</sup> in an experimental (counseled) sample were individually matched with 216 students in a control (uncounseled) sample on five dependent vari-

ables. Experimental subjects were organized into 54 counselee groups, with the 4 members of each group being carefully matched. Six paraprofessional counselors, three males and three females, were given 40 hours of intensive training and then randomly assigned to provide academic adjustment counseling for same-sex counselee groups. Comparison of test-retest assessment of study skills and academic attitudes showed the gain scores for counseled freshmen to average significantly higher than those for uncounseled freshmen. Counseled freshmen also earned grades averaging half a letter grade and 8.3 quality points higher during the first semester. Finally, anonymous replies to a counseling evaluation questionnaire indicated that counselee reaction was overwhelmingly positive to all evaluated aspects of the paraprofessional counseling.

In another study (Zunker & Brown 1966) four professional and eight paraprofessional counselors completed identical 40-hour training programs, used identical testing and counseling materials, followed identical counseling activity sequences, and utilized equivalent counseling facilities. A sample of 160 beginning freshmen, 80 males and 80 females, received academic adjustment counseling from same-sex professional counselors. Paraprofessional counselors gave equivalent counseling to all other beginning freshmen, and matching samples were subsequently drawn from the male and female freshmen receiving student-to-student counseling. Test, questionnaire, and scholarship data were employed to evaluate the comparative effectiveness and acceptability of counseling given by professionals and paraprofessionals. The paraprofessional counselors were found to be as effective as the professional counselors on all criteria of counseling effectiveness. Furthermore, freshmen counseled by paraprofessionals made significantly

<sup>1</sup>Note from the Journal staff. Freshmen, of course, are not all men. In our effort to eliminate sexist terminology from P&G, there are some inherently masculine words (such as *freshman* and *manpower*) for which we can find no female equivalent or neutral substitute; and we can't bring ourselves to coin such words as *freshwoman* or *personpower*. Readers are asked to bear with us—until the English language catches up to P&G policy—and understand that *freshmen* refers to all first-year college students and that *manpower* includes women and men in the work force.



greater use of the information received during counseling, as reflected by first-semester grades and residual study problems. Finally, questionnaire responses clearly revealed the peer-counseled freshmen to be more satisfied with the counseling they had received.

In a third investigation (Brown et al. 1971) the paraprofessional counselors provided academic adjustment counseling to 124 beginning freshmen identified as potential dropouts. Subsequently, 111 of the counseled freshmen were matched with a control group of 111 potential dropouts who were denied the counseling. Students in the two samples were compared on four indexes of counseling outcome, and the counseled group was found to be significantly higher on all four criterion measures. In other investigations the counseling methods and materials were adapted for use with ninth and twelfth grade students, with economically and educationally disadvantaged students, and with first-year psychology students attending the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México. In each instance, test-retest results, questionnaire responses, and/or first-semester grades confirmed the effectiveness of the paraprofessional counseling.

The consistent research results led to the conclusion that paraprofessional counseling was an effective, acceptable, practical, and adaptable counseling procedure, whether the counseling effort was aimed at the prevention or the correction of academic difficulties, whether the counselees were from affluent or poverty backgrounds, and whether the language spoken was English or Spanish. Consequently, it was recommended that a wide variety of educational institutions—secondary schools, community colleges, senior colleges, technological institutes, universities—should consider adding the paraprofessional approach to their mix of available counseling services.

## REACTIONS TO PARAPROFESSIONALS

In a 1970 report (Sobey 1970), the work of paraprofessionals in mental health settings was systematically examined and evaluated. A study of over 10,000 paraprofessionals in 185 programs sponsored by the National Institute of Mental Health revealed that 54 percent of the program directors preferred to use paraprofessionals to perform many of the tasks previously performed by professionals. Paraprofessionals were preferred not simply because of the unavailability of professionals but rather because they provided new services in innovative ways. In many programs paraprofessionals were routinely performing such therapeutic functions as individual counseling, activity group therapy, and milieu therapy. The program directors perceived paraprofessionals as contributing to improved mental health services in two unique ways: (a) filling new roles—based on patient needs—that were previously unfilled by any staff and (b) performing tasks previously performed by professionals but adapted to the unique and special abilities of paraprofessionals. The introduction of paraprofessionals was credited with infusing the projects with a new vitality leading to beneficial changes in the mental health field due to a reassessment of the role, structure, and function of the hospitals and their staffs.

Not all of the literature concerning the use of paraprofessionals is so positive, however. In two recent surveys (Steenland 1973) directors of college counseling centers were found to approve such paraprofessional activities as advising and tutoring disadvantaged students, providing personal-social-academic orientation for beginning freshmen, counseling students with study skills problems, staffing a crisis hotline telephone service, and operating a drop-in advising service on college adjustment problems. However, most of the counsel-

ing center directors indicated strong disapproval for using paraprofessionals to counsel students with sexual difficulties, marriage problems, or pathological symptoms.

### PROFESSIONAL CONCERNS ABOUT PARAPROFESSIONALS

Several reports (Blau 1969; Reiff 1966; Rioch 1966) have examined the potential for a power struggle between professionals and paraprofessionals. It has been suggested by Blau that the professionals should move to establish the kinds of controls over paraprofessionals that are necessary to ensure the effectiveness of services rendered to recipients. However, mental health professionals have also been cautioned by Rioch to maintain a flexible attitude and recognize that they are not exempt from feelings of jealousy and insecurity.

If we have invested long years of hard work in achieving a high professional status, including many courses that were dull and many examinations that were nerve wracking, and we are told that some young bit of a girl with no training can do the job as well or better than we can, it is natural that we should try to find some objections. (Rioch 1966, p. 291)

Thus one writer (Gruver 1971) has warned that unsophisticated paraprofessionals, while intending no harm, could easily project their own difficulties onto their clients, burden clients with their own personal problems, "play" at psychotherapy with clients, or exploit their relationship with clients—all with potentially disastrous consequences for clients' welfare. Another writer (McArthur 1970) has warned against accepting the reports on paraprofessional effectiveness, since the research design is usually faulty because independent variables are not isolated and Hawthorne effect is not controlled. However, such offhand dismissal of the paraprofessional's contribution is untenable when set against

the numerous positive reports published during the past fifteen years.

### EXPLAINING PARAPROFESSIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Instead of rejecting the findings, pertinent variables should be analyzed in an effort to understand the effectiveness of paraprofessional counselors. Fortunately, one such analysis has already been presented (Carkhuff 1969). According to this analysis, the comparatively greater effectiveness of paraprofessional counselors, as reported in several studies, may have resulted from the selection of paraprofessionals who were innately more health-engendering than the professional counselors. The methods employed in selecting paraprofessionals have varied widely, but most programs have systematically attempted to select individuals exhibiting a capacity for empathy, warmth, and sensitivity in interpersonal relations; high self-confidence and self-regard; and the ability to accept people with values different from their own. By contrast, the selection process for professionals is typically dominated by highly intellectual indexes, primarily the undergraduate grade point average and performance on the Graduate Record Examination. Thus the two selection approaches differ meaningfully: Paraprofessional training programs carefully select psychologically healthy persons, while professional training programs emphasize selection on intellectual factors that may or may not correlate with effective interpersonal functioning.

Furthermore, paraprofessional training programs tend to be homogeneous in their sharp focus on the competencies and attitudes needed to facilitate positive client change. Professional training programs, however, tend to be heterogeneous; they often provide a complex mixture of "science and art and research and practice" with little common focus to pull



the training together. In fact, Carkhuff has concluded that paraprofessional training programs attempt to use the little time they have available to effect trainee development of communicative and facilitative skills directly related to the improvement of client functioning. Professional training programs, however, appear to use the great amount of time they have available to effect trainee development of discriminative skills at the expense of communicative and facilitative skills.

If true, these differences in selection and training objectives and procedures could readily account for the equal or better effectiveness and acceptance reported for paraprofessionals. Simply stated, the focus of paraprofessional programs is to attempt to select and prepare people to help people. Their success in doing so has created a number of urgent problems for the counseling profession. Although acceptance by professionals has improved, considerable resistance to using paraprofessionals as therapeutic agents still exists. The interaction of professional and paraprofessional roles is thus one problem area in need of early attention. Another urgent question is the amount and kind of training to be given to paraprofessionals. Until now, paraprofessional training programs have typically focused on the development of understandings and skills required to facilitate client improvement in specific situations. A third question deals with the amount and type of controls to be established over paraprofessionals. Organizational, legal, and supervisory controls are all part of this problem area.

Efforts to achieve a mutually acceptable resolution of these and other problems could well create a long period of frustration and anxiety for both professionals and paraprofessionals. It need not do so, however, if professionals can control their feelings of insecurity and accept the paraprofessionals as effective

members of the mental health team. To do so will require that all concerned focus their attention on clients and what is best for them. But, after all, isn't that what counseling is all about? ■

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# paraprofessionals and social change

## Arthur Pearl

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The accomplishments of paraprofessionals and the paraprofessional movement are many and significant. In almost every variety of human service their presence has been felt—and almost always to the good. While these advances should not be minimized, they should not be exaggerated either. Now is the time for stock taking. Many problems remain. Among the most serious are these four: First, paraprofessionals are used as cheap labor; second, they are used as cosmetics; third, they are used as agents of “technical” progress; fourth, they are used as pacifiers. Each of these distortions is actually part of a larger problem: the unwillingness to examine seriously the direction and nature of change that our society must undergo if quality life is to be universally available and human service is to be a significant factor in that quality life.

## THE PROBLEMS

### **The Paraprofessional as Cheap Labor**

Paraprofessionals gained a measure of support from traditionally conservative politicians and administrators because they were cheap—cheap not only in wages but also in the ease with which they could be removed. Paraprofessionals are almost always paid from funds made available through government and private grants. Therefore, whatever they do is a minor expense economically, and their positions in bureaucratic politics remain vulnerable. They do not have the muscle of professional associations. They do not control the licensing procedures.

Many years ago I categorized three types of paraprofessional arrangements:

the "plantation system," the "medical model," and "true New Careers." In the plantation system, paraprofessionals toil for miserable wages without promise of mobility; without power to control hours, wages, or conditions; and without meaningful training, because if trained they might become "uppity." The medical model allows for some training, some organization, and some mobility, but no path is open to upper echelons of professional status—where true power reigns—other than the traditional and basically flawed professional education. A true New Careers program attempts to be open-ended; here persons can attain the highest positions while remaining on the job and receiving credits for work experience, life experience, and an academic experience that is provided to the paraprofessionals in their work or community settings.

The concerns of a decade ago remain. Too many paraprofessionals are locked into plantations. Many teacher aides have worked for six years on ESEA Title I projects and have no more security and very little more remuneration than they had when they first started. Many others are in medical model programs moving toward an associate of arts degree at a junior college and having little prospect for even a BA, let alone a PhD or an MD. The true New Careers program probably does not exist, although there are programs struggling to develop and implement this model.

### **The Paraprofessional as Cosmetic**

In recent years, legal rulings and public pressure have produced a call for affirmative action. Translated into agency functioning, this means employing minorities in numbers (and ethnic categories) corresponding to their proportion of the population. The paraprofessionals gave to agencies an illusion of affirmative action compliance. Even more important than their statistical presence was their visibility. The para-

professional gave ethnic authenticity to programs that remained, at the core, dominated by traditional thinking. The appearance of blacks, Chicanos, Native Americans, and Asian-Americans in program activity acted to deter a close look at and questioning of a service's appropriateness. The paraprofessional as cosmetic camouflaged the stultifying and antiquated policies that governed the delivery of human service. The accolades delivered by bureaucrats and opportunist politicians to the "indispensable aides without whom these great achievements could not have been made" were also a disguised way of crediting the existing power structure for giant steps forward, while in actuality it had moved very little in either theory or practice.

### **The Paraprofessional as Agent of "Technical" Progress**

Throughout all of the employment of paraprofessionals runs a thread of engineering ideology. It goes like this: Through carefully designed functional task analyses, activities that do not require the refined and expensive talents of the precious professional could be delegated, at no loss in quality of service, to lesser-trained paraprofessionals. Inherent in this thinking is the notion that professionals really own valuable secrets that they could put to work with spectacular results if only they were not burdened with clerical and other menial tasks. It follows from this logic that the formal education received by professionals inculcates skills that could not be gained elsewhere and that the theories that guide professional practice are valid. To be sure, a program with differentiated tasks could be justified and could improve service delivery—but only if the theories and the practices are valid. There is no reason to believe that current practice is valid; and there are mounting data suggesting that drastic overhaul of all human service is necessary.



## The Paraprofessional as Pacifier

Paraprofessionals often find themselves in the positions of pacifiers of legitimately angry populations. This pacification process takes two forms. On the one hand, community leaders are co-opted into "buying" the agency organization and methodology, and while they do not actually sell out, they lose credibility because they must speak under the auspices of an agency that does not address true community needs. The other form of pacification is to bring in a minority paraprofessional and use that person as an intermediary between the agency and the community. If such a person is unable to calm down community elements, he or she must bear the brunt of the animosity, the attack, and the actual responsibility. The paraprofessional who fails to pacify can be replaced, and another can be given this unenviable duty.

## THE END OF UN-IDEOLOGY

The abuse and misuse of paraprofessionals are inevitable in a human service that operates without an ideology. It is no longer possible to improve the "techniques" of human service while a society evolves that is hostile to universal quality life. Human service cannot successfully patch people up in a society that uses so much of its energy to grind people up. All deleterious conditions are going full blast. Poverty in the United States is increasing. Racism and sexism are also increasing, since they are natural correlates of poverty. Health services are remote, inhuman, and expensive. Education wallows, attacked from left and right, condemned by provincial teacher protectionism, suffering from the loss of hold over any tax base, and having no set of defensible goals. Humans find themselves brutalized and mystified by politics, culture, leisure, and peripheral work.

All of these undesirable attributes of

life come at increasing expenditures of fossil fuels and other depletable resources. The net result is unending and seemingly unsolvable crises—energy crises, crime crises, inflation crises, school crises, health crises, youth crises, welfare crises, and governmental crises. These crises, although distorted by the press and by academics, are real and lie at the heart of all human service. The use of paraprofessionals can be justified only in a society that is struggling to be free. And there can be no true freedom without a redistribution of wealth and power in the United States. The concentration of wealth and power in the hands of a few requires that there be poverty, racism, dehumanized bureaucracy, warped priorities, alienation, and feelings of impotence among the vast majority. Although they describe different symptoms of and ascribe different causes to the problem, women, youth, the aged, organized labor, environmentalists, and oppressed minorities feel deeply their estrangement from significant decision making and the lack of gratifications in their lives.

Over and over again it has been suggested that these crises have been exaggerated and that the difficulties could be treated effectively by some technical adjustments in a society that does not really need to readjust wealth and power arrangements. This is what Bell (1973) has suggested in *The Coming of a Post-Industrial Society*. He foresees an end to scarcity and a true meritocracy—in other words, no more poverty or racism or poorly served people. This millennium will come, according to Bell, by our continuing on our current path, improving somewhat our selection of leaders so that persons will advance to leadership on the basis of true merit rather than social background, and by technological advances caused by the judicious investment of concentrated capital. Thus we can look forward to a wonderful human service brought to you by the same peo-

ple who brought you Tang, Teflon, and the Vietnam War. This is not a new argument; it is a return to advocacy of benevolent dictatorship, only Bell exalts science as king in place of mere but deservng mortals. I think it time to suggest that it is progress so defined that has led us to the real unhappiness we experience.

An analogue to the notion that the cure to the problems brought on by technology is more and better technology can be found in the conclusion drawn by Jencks (1972) in *Inequality*; he believes that what this country needs is some kind of socialism. This conclusion comes after a long and tedious argument that schooling has not reduced economic inequality and cannot do so. If school is a totally ineffective institution, then there are only two possible means by which income, other wealth, and power can be rearranged: either through some voluntary surrendering by those now in power or through some spontaneous takeover by uneducated, oppressed populations. Both alternatives should be considered as seriously as any other fairy tale.

The redistribution of wealth and power will come only with well-organized and enlightened political movements that are prepared to (a) document the undesirability of today's arrangements; (b) offer alternatives to the current system, with specific recommendations about work (its nature, magnitude, pay, etc.), taxes, political apparatus, and so on; and (c) exercise leadership in the emerging society. In this plan human service workers, and particularly paraprofessionals, are the key. It is no longer possible to discuss any human service in a society that requires poverty, racism, and dehumanizing organization. That society works at cross-purposes to service. Here are the issues:

- A society with 40 percent of its adult population unemployed cannot reduce poverty or racism by employing para-

professionals. All that programs can do, working within such parameters, is to redistribute poverty. Thus blacks may gain at the expense of whites, or women at the expense of men, or youth at the expense of the aged.

- A society expecting a technically advanced private sector to alleviate poverty or racism or inhuman work conditions is doomed to devastating disappointments, since the main thrust of technology in industry is efficiency, which reduces the number of people employed (particularly in stable primary labor activity). The elimination of workers is really the only thing that accumulated capital can be used for. This not only worsens conditions for the lower classes but also markedly exacerbates energy crises. (It is particularly sad to see "liberal" Democrats calling for a tax cut at this time; this is another way of saying "Let General Motors and Exxon solve our problems for us.")

- Human service is particularly damaged by encouragement of private sector economic activity, since human service is primarily supported by tax dollars—and huge private corporations apply sufficient political pressure so that tax laws are written for their benefit.

- The periodic energy crises that are inevitable in a society of rapidly accelerating technology affect poverty and racism. The cutbacks and "sacrifices" that are solicited and coerced result in layoffs from work and higher prices, both of which most hurt the nonwhite and the poor.

- The crunch of all this is that human services—the occupations of paraprofessionals—which are the logical alternatives to the goods-producing, energy-consuming private sector and which could meet vital needs, conserve energy, reduce inflation, prevent the concentration of wealth and power in the hands of a few, and offer employment with op-



portunities of advancement to women and minorities, are in big trouble. The distance between the client and the practitioner widens because of failure to develop constituencies; the increasing harangue of politicians who see votes in dollar savings and see health, education, and welfare as frills; the brutalization of clients by bureaucratic codes and the short-sighted protectionism of teacher unions, associations of social workers, medical associations, counselor groups, police organizations, and so on.

### WHAT TO DO! WHAT TO DO!

The solution to the problem is as simple to say as it is difficult to do. We need to advance total strategies. Piecemeal approaches simply will not work. We need a central coherent thesis, the heart of which is a truly full employment society. The proposal of this thesis must be precise enough to establish the number of people to be employed, the nature of such employment, and the means by which people are to be paid. The proposal must address not only minimum wage but also maximum wage. The proposal must address not only how persons enter work but also how they advance and what assurance there is that old biases will not be reintroduced into the new system (Pearl 1973).

In addition to a society that needs all its people and does not require the pitting of one oppressed group against another, there needs to be developed an ideology of nonoppressive human service—an education for freedom (Freire 1970; Pearl 1972). Health services must be developed in the context of freedom, as must community support systems for youth, the aged, and the handicapped. These ideologies must be available in print and must precisely articulate specific tactics, organization, staff training, and governance.

Finally, it must be understood that all change is political. If paraprofes-

sionalism is to be a factor in and not extraneous or opposite to desired social change, then those of us who desire such change must recognize our responsibility to generate public support for such change through constant education. We must mobilize that support in local, state, and national elections, and we must continue to pressure present elected officials toward legislation and executive action that will increase human service with tax dollars that normally go to the military and other supports of the goods-producing private sector of the economy. Advocates of social change must also engage in confrontations—boycotts, demonstrations, strikes—but only when those activities lend support to a total strategy that includes public education, campaigning for candidates, and lobbying.

The issue of paraprofessionals and social change, most simply put, is this. Calls for employing paraprofessionals or advancing them up career ladders are empty without a change in the economy—a change that would markedly shift the emphasis from the manufacture of goods and the expenditure of energy to an emphasis on health, education, welfare, and other human services (including much more human involvement in transportation services). Such a change must involve almost doubling the number of persons employed. Such a change must put ceilings on wages and wealth. Now is the time for bringing together paraprofessionals and social change, which have been independent too long. ■

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# CHARLES C THOMAS • PUBLISHER

**GROUP COUNSELING AND THERAPY TECHNIQUES IN SPECIAL SETTINGS** edited by Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond*, and John G. Cull, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville*. (8 Contributors) This handbook pinpoints the settings and describes the techniques of group counseling. Practical material is offered on group counseling with adolescents in a school setting, with the disadvantaged, with the mentally handicapped, with public offenders, with alcoholic abusers and with the severely disabled. Group methods are also discussed in terms of marital counseling in groups, group work through peer pressure and group counseling in achieving adjustment to work. Developed by nationally known practitioners, this book should be of real value to all counselors in social service areas. '74, 180 pp., 3 tables, \$10.75

**OCCUPATIONAL STRESS** edited by Alan McLean, *New York Hospital, White Plains*. (79 Contributors) The term "stress" is used by behavioral scientists, clinicians and engineers. Even within the many disciplines which use the word, it has different meanings. When a term is applied to behavior at work, it has different meanings. When a term is applied to behavior at work, these different meanings interfere with the clarity of communication and understanding across disciplinary lines. This book is the first to present widely held concepts of occupational stress in a single volume. The purpose of the Occupational Mental Health Conference at the Center for Occupational Mental Health was to bring together representatives from the many concerned disciplines to present their viewpoints so that a picture of current thinking could be obtained and the various definitions of the term understood. Based upon this conference, this book presents theoretical concepts, research results and various specific suggestions for coping with stress-related problems. '74, 128 pp., 21 il., 9 tables, \$9.75

**MEN AT WORK: Applications of Ergonomics to Performance and Design** by Roy J. Shephard, *Univ. of Toronto, Ontario, Canada*. The topics cover a wide range from the physiology and psychology of work and biomechanics to applied mathematics and human factors engineering, with a unifying theme of matching design to human performance characteristics in the interests of both worker-comfort and productivity. Where possible, material has been chosen for its broad interdisciplinary appeal and, while a sound scientific basis has been preserved, unnecessary technical terms are avoided. The psychological and the physiological impact of the working environment is noted and psychological, physical and physiological aspects of fatigue are discussed. The final section of this volume takes a detailed look at specific ergonomic problems: the underdeveloped nation, the application of anthropometry to design, the nature of computers and their potential role in replacing the worker and the ergonomics of mass transit systems. '74, 408 pp., 99 il., 8 tables, \$23.50

**CAREER COUNSELING IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE** by Charles Healy, *Univ. of California, Los Angeles*. This book is designed for counselors who help adolescents and young adults in their career development. It presents distinct, replicative procedures for helping people make and implement career plans. Covered are such career tasks as choosing, problem solving, building esteem and managing time. Counseling procedures are described in detail so that counselors may apply them in a replicative manner to their own clients. The author describes one approach for achieving replication and shows how to employ the thirteen procedures so that they can be replicated. Methods of measuring career development and research pertinent to the procedures are discussed in order to help the counselor select procedures and evaluate his use of these procedures. '74 160 pp., 1 il., 7 tables, cloth-\$8.75, paper-\$5.95

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# programs



# training adolescents as peer counselors

Ralph sits hunched in his chair, clutching his notebook close to his chest and rubbing his toe deeply into the spot on the floor. He has just mumbled that he feels miserable. No one likes him. He has no friends. Jill leans against the post, watching the rest of her fourth grade class at play during recess, too shy to enter the activity and be part of the laughing group. The student questionnaires investigating how well the school is meeting the needs of its students shout loudly of loneliness. One-third of the students feel that no one knows them, that no one would notice if they were absent, and that they are known only by name to their teachers. For these students, going to school is a cold and impersonal experience.

Professional training and expertise is not the answer to the problems threading through these incidents. As a psychologist, I can care genuinely for Ralph, but I can't be his buddy, eat lunch with him, walk home from school with him, or shoot baskets in his backyard. I know students as friends, but I can't go to class with them, walk in the hall with them, or be a close friend to all of them. These students need their peers, who will be their friends or be friendly or help them learn the skills to build their own friendship group.

In March of 1971 the Palo Alto Peer Counseling Program was started to give students this kind of help. Since that time over 600 junior and senior high students have been trained. This group of adolescents represents a unique concept of the paraprofessional, a human resource that tends to be overlooked and is frequently undervalued.

## Barbara B. Varenhorst

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Are minors capable of dealing with problems of another when they still have problems of their own? Isn't it an insult to the professional training of a counselor and his or her work to presume that adolescents can perform some of these helping functions? Would students care enough to be trained and be interested enough to give of their time and energy without being paid? These are the questions people asked as the program was starting. The answers? The program is growing, more and stronger support is now coming from the professional and lay community, and counselors now see these students as an extension of the adult professional.

### THE FORMAL TRAINING

All secondary students are invited to join the program and are accepted without screening. Students are informed that any student who knows what it is like to have problems and who is willing to spend eighteen hours of his or her own time to be trained is welcome. Consequently, some enroll to learn how to help others, while others come to get help for themselves. As one student said, "I took the training because I didn't have many friends. During the training I was forced to look at things in myself I had been avoiding. I have more friends now, but I also have more confidence in myself."

Training is done in groups of ten to twelve, usually a mixture of junior and senior high students, and is conducted by two adults specifically trained to teach this program. A simple, unsophisticated, but specific curriculum is used. Each session starts with a learning activity. This is followed by group discussion examining the purpose of the activity and determining what students actually learned from it. The curriculum, however, is sufficiently flexible to permit the group members to use their own problems and experiences as the content for the session. Therefore, a trainee may be receiv-

ing help on a personal problem, while others in the group are getting experience in helping a peer with a problem.

The outline of the curriculum is as follows.

- I. Communication Skills (4 weeks)
  - A. Verbal one-to-one conversation
  - B. Behavioral communication (groups of 3)
  - C. Communication with a small group of peers who are strangers
  - D. Large group communication
- II. Decision-Making Applied to Working on Common Problems (4 weeks)
  - A. Family difficulties
  - B. Peer relationships
  - C. School problems (being a new student, cliques, etc.)
  - D. Health (drugs, physical handicaps, etc.)
- III. Ethics and Strategies of Counseling (4 weeks)
  - A. What is counseling?
  - B. Potential resources for peer counselors
  - C. Limitations and potentials of the peer counselor role
  - D. Getting started, confidentiality, and records

The training attempts to do several things. First, it endeavors to help students develop the skill of talking comfortably to a peer about feelings and concerns, thus indicating a genuine interest. Throughout the course, students discuss what is necessary for a trusting, caring relationship and how to establish this feeling. Second, it seeks to help students use a decision-making model to deal with problems. A problem such as divorce in a family, sibling rivalry, or loneliness is discussed. Students then consider alternative ways to cope with such problems. After examining alternatives, the group members discuss how they could help a fellow teenager with such problems. This may be followed by doing role plays to try

out alternatives. Finally, the training aims to help students understand the difference between advice-giving and counseling. Many students feel that counseling is telling someone what to do and having a solution for every problem. Some students come to understand that if they can help another solve a problem, they have actually helped that person become more independent and capable as an individual.

The training repeatedly stresses the unique role peers can perform as a bridge between a troubled young person and an adult professional. To help them in this role, professional resources and their use are covered late in the course. Trainees are also repeatedly taught that they will primarily be helping peers who have normal developmental problems, as opposed to young people who are severely disturbed; they are usually relieved to hear this. The detailed rationale and philosophy guiding the development of the program and training are described in Hamburg and Varenhorst (1972).

## APPLYING THE TRAINING

The training that students receive is immediately applicable to all contacts they have with people. The ultimate goal is to reduce students' formal assignments and at the same time bring about changes in relationships, as a trained corps of students sensitively observes needs and reaches out to help others in a natural way.

Formal assignments are made, however, and they do come from a variety of sources. To facilitate getting assignments for students who finish training and to provide for ongoing supervision as well as continued training, practicum groups are held. Each peer counselor is assigned to one of these weekly groups. These meet after school or in the evening and are run by one of the staff of trained supervisors. Students are encouraged,

but never forced, to take an assignment. The practicum may be used to increase one's confidence and training while one is learning from others in the practicum who are starting assignments. Those who are starting assignments discuss what they are doing, what worked, and what didn't work; and they seek further help from the leader or group members.

Formal assignments usually come from teachers and counselors who submit a written request for help from a peer counselor. Requests must include a clear statement of the problem and the type of student help desired. These requests are reviewed for their appropriateness with respect to what kind of training students have been given, how much time is involved, and what can actually be expected of a teenager. Approved requests are discussed and distributed in practicum groups.

Students are allowed to choose their assignments, with guidance from practicum leaders. Many peer counselors pick an elementary-level assignment first and then, with experience, move on to an assignment with their own peer group.

## TYPES OF ASSIGNMENTS

Assignments and activities are varied. A high school boy was asked to help reduce the fighting behavior of a bright second grade boy. Allen met with the boy, first playing and talking with him. After seeing him get into a fight, Allen asked the boy to try out on him some things he could do other than fighting when he was mad. Four weeks later the boy's teacher reported that he could now be kept in class for a full morning. Coming to like and respect Allen, the boy was imitating some alternatives to fighting that Allen had suggested. Further growth was needed, but in a short period of time definite improvement was evident.

Gordon worked with a school psychologist applying behavior modification techniques to help an elementary

boy learn appropriate social behaviors and increase his motivation for schoolwork and his tolerance for accepting adult direction. Two high school students played games with handicapped peers, essentially to provide peer social contacts for these isolated students. A junior high girl taught a classmate more acceptable social approaches to getting peer attention than hitting a person on the back, arm, or leg; and as the girl used these "new" behaviors, she began to make real friends and seemed consequently to develop a more pleasing personality.

Peer counselors do other types of paraprofessional work. Three students were trained to conduct structured interviews so they could help with a district research study. They interviewed peers about sensitive issues that might have elicited different responses if adults had been doing the interviewing. Peer counselors at one high school worked on making the school more friendly. They organized an orientation breakfast for new students, followed by a tour of the school. In late October they invited the students back for a bag lunch to check on how things were going. At Christmas a potluck was held for further contact. This model has since been used by junior high schools to help new seventh graders adjust to the larger, more complicated system of a bigger school.

## **DIFFICULT ISSUES**

It would be easy to glow over the successes and neglect discussing areas needing attention and improvement. Any organized program, if it is growing, requires attention to certain knotty issues. Many of the current problems have resulted from the fact that the program *has* grown.

### **Assignments**

There are three problems related to assignments. First, there are not enough

peer counselors with certain qualifications to fill specific requests. There are not, for example, enough boys or enough black students to satisfy requests. Secondary students, especially junior high students, do not have enough flexibility in their schedules to match time requests in elementary schools. When requests cannot be met, some teachers become disillusioned with the program.

Second, the mechanics of getting counselors to assignments has become a severe problem. Many assignments require a student to have a car; few peer counselors have a car. Some teachers want help only at certain specific hours, such as between 11:00 A.M. and 1:00 P.M.; many students are not available for such specific, long periods.

Third, no clearly delineated target population is available to serve as an ongoing pool for assignments. The types of problems peer counselors deal with emerge at different times. When one does emerge, a peer counselor may not be available. If certain populations, such as potential dropouts, could be identified as being the particular "clients" of peer counselors, ways could be developed to use these adolescent paraprofessionals more effectively and efficiently.

### **Supervisor Trainers and Practicum Leaders**

During the pilot year, twelve professionals were carefully selected to be the initial trainers. These people were experienced in working with adolescents, were skilled in group dynamics, and were flexible and adaptable people. Much of the success of that first year was due to their effectiveness.

As the program has grown, many more adult leaders have been needed. To provide for this, training classes have been held for adults specifically to prepare them to fill this role. Any adult may take the eighteen-hour training course. Approximately 120 adults have been



trained in this way, including parents, secretaries, administrators, teachers, and counselors. Many, however, do not have the background skills that the original leaders had. This is especially true of group process skills. When practicum groups were started, additional leaders were again needed. Those accepting a practicum group must commit themselves to an afternoon a week for a whole year—a large commitment for people who have a full-time job in addition to this—and the training and practicum leaders are not paid for this work.

To coordinate the numerous training and practicum groups, regular meetings of these leaders are necessary. It is difficult to find a common time for a meeting and embarrassing to have to ask for still more of their precious time. But without the leaders and without the regular meetings, the program and the quality of it will suffer.

### Evaluation

The program has been supported by the Elementary-Secondary Education Act and National Institute of Mental Health funds requiring specific types of evaluations. These supporting groups are basically interested in the numbers and behavior of those helped by the program. Such data, however, are very difficult to collect systematically. Small behavior changes may be overlooked. Elementary children may not be able to say accurately what they learned from a peer counselor. Although dramatic examples of students clearly having been helped by a peer counselor do exist, specific data on all formal assignments are hard to obtain, not to mention the informal contacts students have had with peers.

It is evident that peer counselors are serving as helping agents of professionals, but what is most remarkable is what the program is doing for those in it, both students and adults. A high school girl reported that she and her mother are now talking for the first time in ten years.

After the family session, she decided to counsel herself about her own problems—and it worked. A group of seventh grade trainees could not spend a session without hitting one another, interrupting each other, and being generally disruptive. They now are working together as a group, applying the principles they have learned. A student reported that he is now able to carry on a conversation without interrogating the other person. Talking of a girl who had approached her for help, a peer counselor remarked, "If I just take her on as a friend, I will not be helping her to develop her own skills in making friends without me." A mother wrote, "My junior high daughter has developed poise, sensitivity to others, and kindness through your program." For a more detailed description of demonstrated outcomes of the program, see Varenhorst (1973).

### FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The problems are the challenges for the future, and gradually solutions are unfolding. During the summer of 1974 the training will be introduced as a school course for credit. This will provide additional time for more extensive training and may resolve some assignment difficulties. It may become the direction of the future, if it finally becomes an integrated rather than a "special" school program, receiving the budgeted support it needs to continue. ■

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# paraprofessionals in a large-scale university program

## Edmund E. Allen

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Members of the 1973 University and College Counseling Center Directors Conference in Morgantown, West Virginia, were told by a most distinguished panel that paraprofessionalism was a fad that would be short-lived. At the same conference, Task Force Six, "Paraprofessionals," found directors optimistically creating a concise "Who, What, Where, When, How, and Why" document on paraprofessionals in higher education.

Without a doubt, many university experiences with paraprofessional programs have been discouraging (perhaps disastrous), while others have been extremely rewarding to the recipient student, the participating paraprofessional, the sponsoring counseling center and its supervisory professionals, and ultimately to the institution and its source of finances. What factors are responsible for the difference between a program that fails and a successful program with a future? Task Force Six stated that the degree of paraprofessionalism obtained in a program is determined by the degree of sophistication and specificity, the level of expectation, and the amount of time and money invested in selection, training, and supervision. They also said that two other factors are critical: the closeness of the paraprofessional role to the professional role and the quality and quantity of paraprofessional involvement with professionals.

The University of South Florida has a paraprofessional program with an excit-

ing present and an optimistic future; the USF program is the focus of this article.

### **PROGRAM COSTS AND RETURNS ON THE INVESTMENT**

The Counseling Center for Human Development at USF has a heavy investment in paraprofessional programs. Six programs are staffed by students, 22 working as paid paraprofessionals and 80 working as volunteers. The students in the six programs are: (a) the Rap Cadre staff (for drug and crisis intervention), (b) behavior modification managers, (c) center assistants, (d) black peer managers, (e) career managers, and (f) veterans affairs managers. In addition, screening, training, and consultation are provided by the center for two additional paraprofessional groups: helpline operators and residence hall staff.

Good paraprofessional programs are usually costly. In the USF center the 22 paid students receive a total of approximately \$17,000. Salaries of supervisors and training professionals add approximately \$60,000 more. This expenditure, however, has many rewards. It doubles or triples the center's effectiveness, primarily in terms of numbers of contacts with clients who would normally not be walk-ins or even referrals. It also provides a net gain to the university community of \$200,000 more in service than if equivalent hours of professional time were supported by state funds. And it provides personal and professional gains to the paraprofessional students themselves.

Paraprofessionals do require a good deal of training by professionals, but the time that paraprofessionals contribute to client service far exceeds training time. For example, at USF in April 1974, 174 paraprofessionals received 999 hours of training by professionals. (This excludes training by advanced paraprofessionals.) And 1,406 students received 1,898 hours

of service from these trained paraprofessionals. Advantages that accrue to these recipient students are a greater ease and a greater depth of communication. The rapport and trust that exist between client and paraprofessional peer are truly beautiful to watch.

Paraprofessionals at USF have become the most valid source of evaluation of the counseling center's budget expenditures, goals, objectives, professional staff, services, and both professional and secretarial job applicants. They also provide access to the student body pulse and feedback to the center as to whether services are meeting students' needs.

An obvious practical advantage to the paraprofessionals themselves is that they can gain financial support and course credit for their work. Moreover, their job placement opportunities have been increasing; the most skilled bachelor's level graduates have been offered positions with salaries in the MA or PhD range.

Paraprofessionalism at USF is students helping students. John Page, student coordinator of the Behavior Modification Program, says that the group with which he works "serves as a unique channel that allows undergraduate paraprofessionals to aid a large number of students in solving their individual problems—like weight control and test anxiety—and allows the paraprofessional to receive practical experience."

### **RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION**

Many paraprofessional programs have failed during the recruitment and selection phases. Recruiting should be directed at a population compatible with the intended paraprofessional task. Open recruiting, for example, often attracts too many students who cannot be accepted, causing ill will. Generally, recruiting directed toward sophomores and juniors is most profitable, since dropouts among freshmen and the lim-



ited availability of seniors after training results in excessive turnover. Seniors remaining at the institution for graduate studies, however, are often prime candidates for leadership in paraprofessional programs.

At USF we found that recruitment and selection were overorganized: We had such specific requirements for each program that we inadvertently limited communications among the members of the different programs. Other barriers to communication are differences in the personality, language, and appearance of members of different groups. For example, behavior modification paraprofessional managers, who are well-dressed senior and graduate students in experimental psychology, have little in common with Rap Cadre paraprofessionals, whose looseness of dress is most appropriate for their outreach focus.

### TRAINING AND SUPERVISION

Training and supervision are viewed as inseparable at USF. Lynda Williams, Women's Program paraprofessional coordinator and problem pregnancy specialist, wrote in a position paper, "In working with a supervisor, the paraprofessional women are seeking to fill distinct needs. It is paramount to a paraprofessional group such as ours to maximize the opportunity to develop counseling skills through experience and professional evaluation. Furthermore, it is necessary for the supervisor and the paraprofessionals to be a part of the training and evaluation process."

Our basic premise is that in addition to basic training for such things as communication skills, each program must have job-specific training. For example, the Rap Cadre Program includes the crisis team and women's subprograms. Both include training by the director of the health center. In the Rap Cadre the focus is on such areas as emergency

treatment of drug overdose. The Women's Program is concerned with providing detailed information on contraceptive devices, pregnancy tests, and abortion methods—including the weaknesses, strengths, limitations, costs, and availability of each.

Since we are interested in programs as well as in individuals, it is important that training also incorporate involvement, cohesiveness, unity of purpose and method, and dedication. Ben Barger of the Mental Health Institute at the University of Florida—Gainesville uses a training model for trainers of paraprofessionals; this model, called "The Process," is applicable to both program and individual development and is normally taught or explained only by the experiential or experiential/didactic method. It differs in philosophy considerably from the traditional model, which usually starts with and emphasizes a didactic approach. With "The Process," the unmotivated and unqualified self-eliminate early by virtue of their instability and intolerance for ambiguity and leaderlessness. After about five or six sessions, "The Process" becomes a non-structured but goal-oriented group experience. This experiential/didactic approach simultaneously yields individual self-knowledge, group self-knowledge, and common direction. The enthusiasm and confidence that result from the discipline are phenomenal.

### RETENTION: BRINGING THE MOUNTAIN TO MOHAMMED

We still need to have the paraprofessionals go where the action is: in the street, where most professionals and angels fear to tread. Increased student retention in the academic institution can be accomplished by outreach to minority groups: women, blacks, Spanish-speaking people, Native Americans, migrants, veterans, foreign students, early admissions,

accelerated students, psychiatric admissions, blind and handicapped students, married students, homosexual students, and prison inmates. Some of these groups and their problems can be isolated by the friendly computer. The trained paraprofessional can aim toward a specific outreach goal, and retention can become a reality.

For example, the USF Rap Cadre initiated a search in the six largest high rises and apartment complexes to find the "helping person" other residents turn to when under stress. Mike Short, student coordinator of the Rap Cadre, described it this way: "We have a commuter campus lacking in communication and cohesiveness between the students and the university. Our objective is to assess needs of commuting students, to locate natural counselors, and to provide training sessions involving communication skills, interviewing techniques, and resources and referrals."

Another innovative program was triggered by an influx of "study release" students from the state prison system. With prison capacities being exceeded nationally, universities and colleges can expect to be solicited as rehabilitative institutions for intellectually qualified offenders. USF's answer is the Recipient/Participant Program; it centers around the use of the Rap Cadre and the development of new team members to deal with their own culture, that of the law violator.

These two examples are mentioned not to provide a model for other institutions, many of which have neither commuters nor offenders as students, but to encourage sensitivity and reaction to specific campus needs.

## GROWING PAINS

Due to strong administrative support from the university president and the vice president of student affairs, the paraprofessional programs at USF have

never faced failure. They have not, however, grown to their present size and quality without setbacks of varying degree.

A couple of years ago a situation evolved at USF that faced many universities: an unexpected increase in the use and abuse of hard and soft drugs. Another difficult situation arising at the same time was the termination of relationships between the USF housing system and two private high rise apartments housing almost 1,000 students. It is believed that these two factors combined to result in three suicides plus a multitude of other disruptive behaviors in one year. Although this is approximately the expected yearly suicide rate for a university of over 15,000 students, it was a shock for USF, which had had no suicides in the past eight years. We can only speculate that the situation would have been considerably alleviated had we had the paraprofessional outreach contacts we have now.

Another crisis came to a head in the fall of 1972, when the director surrendered the responsibility and authority for training and supervising the Rap Cadre to the counseling center's clinical staff. The Rap Cadre members perceived themselves as having sufficient skills to function as therapists because they believed they were well trained and experienced. The center's professional trainers and supervisors were considerably more conservative in their confidence and trust in the students. Tensions and frustrations reached the boiling point. The director developed a definitive role plan for each of the six programs; it was accepted by professionals and paraprofessionals. There are now well-defined levels of what the paraprofessional is responsible for doing. In all programs the paraprofessional goes through four distinct levels of training: Level I—Observer; Level II—Technician; Level III—Advanced Specialist; Level IV—Psychological Associate. Each progres-

sively higher level of authorized functioning requires more responsibility, knowledge, and experience from the paraprofessional.

### **CONCLUSION**

With austere budgets limiting counseling center staffs and an increased need

for greater retention of enrolled students, an efficient and effective method of providing services is imperative. The ultimate objective is to bring paraprofessionals to the point where they can recruit, screen, select, evaluate, promote, deselect, train, supervise, and administer their own programs at an optimum level. ■



# volunteers in a community mental health agency

The combination of an increasing interest in outreach and a decreasing availability of money has resulted in mental health centers developing various non-traditional programs and approaches for meeting community needs. One type of approach is the use of paraprofessionals, and one type of paraprofessional is the volunteer. This article is concerned with schemes for using volunteers in a community mental health center, as exemplified in one such center in Colorado. Underlying the schemes are two basic assumptions: (a) a nontraditional orientation toward the meeting of mental health needs through volunteer staff and (b) appropriate training of paraprofessionals as a necessary preparation for their future placement.

## PROGRAM OVERVIEW

Volunteers placed at the Jefferson County Mental Health Center participate in a 20-week training program. The program was developed and implemented two years ago in a well-established suburb of Denver, Colorado, with a population of about 65,000. The population is predominantly white and middle class. There is a strong community identity and a willingness on the part of residents to participate in community activities. The original participants in the program consisted of 29 females and 2 males from the Arvada community who had contacted the center for the purpose of offering their services as volunteers. Their ages ranged from 24 to 50. No

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screening or selection procedures were used. (The training portion of the program is not discussed here; readers interested in it should see Nicoletti & Flater-Benz in press.)

## **PLACEMENT**

Three factors determined the placement of the volunteers: the center's needs, the volunteers' abilities, and the volunteers' interests. The center's needs were ascertained through a questionnaire that was sent to members of the center's staff to determine whether they were interested in having a volunteer placed with them and, if so, in what areas. Volunteers' ability levels were obtained from various pre- and posttests on communication levels and knowledge of techniques as well as from subjective ratings. Volunteers' interests were determined by their ranking, according to preference, three areas in which they wanted to be involved. The volunteers' placement possibilities were generated from previously existing programs and/or self-initiated projects. The volunteers were then individually interviewed in order to arrive at the actual placement.

### **Direct Service**

Direct service volunteers function in both individual and group treatment; they work as co-therapists with professional staff. Their activities are described below.

The family-adolescent group is an educationally modeled group geared toward teaching parents and adolescents effective ways of contracting. Two full-time staff and two volunteers act as therapists in the group, teaching the concepts of contracting and behavioral approaches to family-adolescent problems. In addition, the volunteers contribute a unique and very essential aspect to the group by using contracting with their own children.

Anxiety management training is a

technique using the principles of deep muscle relaxation in working with individuals experiencing general or specific anxieties. For the past year the group has been conducted solely by volunteers who have been trained in the technique and supervised by professional staff. Volunteers conduct the group, interview the individuals, and coordinate the program.

Volunteers also participate as co-therapists in the alcoholic group. In addition to group therapy, this work involves following up patients, overseeing the taking of Antabuse, and meeting with other agencies involved in alcoholism.

Another therapy placement for the volunteers involves a day therapy group. This is an intermediate intensity group for women who are experiencing situational depression, isolation, and difficulties in social or marital relationships. The volunteers function as co-therapists and also provide an intermediate step between the therapist and the patients by bridging the gap between friendship and facilitation.

Volunteers also participate in a "Relax and Grow Thin" group. This group combines behavioral techniques of dieting with relaxation instruction to control the anxiety response associated with overeating.

Co-therapy experience in individual treatment ranges from seeing patients with diverse problems to participating in an intense community outreach treatment program called Ways to Effective Living (WEL). In WEL the volunteers have close contact with chronically ill patients, making home visits and initiating activity-oriented treatment.

### **Indirect Service and Community Outreach**

Volunteers supplement their direct service experience with active participation in consultation and community growth

programs. They have consulted with schools regarding children who exhibit behavioral problems and have assisted teachers in establishing programs based on behavior modification approaches. Their evaluation of group needs in the community led to their establishing three programs: for wives of policemen, a growth program concerned with problems particular to their situation; a welfare clients' group focusing on child and homemaking issues; and a transactional analysis class for the general public.

Besides these community-oriented activities, the volunteers are involved in public relations. They began by assessing the needs of the community and the community's knowledge of mental health through a questionnaire that attempted to determine the community's attitudes toward the Jefferson County Mental Health Center and the community's feelings about what functions needed to be increased or altered. This generated a series of articles in a local newspaper about various aspects of mental health and the functioning of the Jefferson County Mental Health Center. The volunteers contacted radio and TV stations and arranged for the presentation of short editorials regarding volunteer training and use. They contacted various community groups such as the Jaycees and the Lions Club and arranged for presentations by a volunteer and a staff member on the subject of mental health.

Supervision during placement is ongoing, the volunteers meeting individually with their supervisors and as a group with the authors. Evaluation of the volunteers is achieved through supervisory ratings and patient-generated data.

## **DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

The use of trained volunteers has been found to be an effective resource for meeting increasing community needs. The program at the Jefferson County

Mental Health Center has existed for two years. Six out of the original 11 volunteers are still actively involved at the center, along with 16 from the second program. Each volunteer contributes an average of three hours a week, for a total of 66 hours contributed each week in the areas of both direct and indirect service.

In the area of direct service, volunteers are able to provide a beneficial link between the professional and the client. This role of the volunteer allows the client to have a role model who is from the community but is knowledgeable in the area of mental health. Difficulties encountered by the volunteers center around ethical issues, such as clients' questioning the payment of a fee for a service received from a nonpaid individual. This particular issue is handled by an explanation of the fact that the volunteers either work directly with other staff members or are supervised by them.

A second area of difficulty encountered by the volunteers occurs as a result of their living in the same community as the clients; the difficulty involves clients calling them at home or approaching them in stores in order to receive counseling. This problem is handled in discussions between supervisor and volunteer and by supervisors' alerting volunteers to the potential of such an encounter.

In the areas of outreach and indirect service, the volunteers provide an important service by becoming involved in many activities and programs that the staff does not have time for. In addition, many inroads to the community are opened up because some volunteers are well known and active in the community. The difficulty encountered in the area of community outreach arises when volunteers become involved in so many programs and activities that supervision and monitoring are hampered. Also, their involvement in the community has begun increasing the case load at the



center, as increased awareness has led to increased center use.

One important consideration in developing volunteer programs is the provision for reinforcement. The program described here provides reinforcement through college credit and through the training. The college credit is rewarding because it allows individuals to gain hours toward their degrees or gain hours for keeping up their teaching certification. The training is a reinforcer because

it allows them to gain additional skills that they can transfer to other areas. The volunteers should be utilized, not "used," in order that they can make a valid contribution and enhance their own development. ■

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# paraprofessionals in minority programs

Minority relations paraprofessionals at Colorado State University are used in a variety of roles. These roles are carried out in two programs: Star Power and Instructional Aides. The work of the student paraprofessionals revolves around awareness programs for students, faculty, and staff. The paraprofessional uses films, papers, texts, simulations, and filmstrips to generate among the majority community an awareness of the ethnic minority group experience in America. The feelings attendant to that experience are related as well. Small group discussions are basic to this type of program in order to deal with underlying feelings of racism and prejudice found on a predominantly Anglo campus. Providing information to predominantly Anglo groups about minorities and their feelings creates an impact that releases the feelings Anglo students hold regarding minorities. Once this is done, the paraprofessional uses this exchange to create an atmosphere that may lead to changed attitudes.

Awareness training is provided by paraprofessionals for groups in residence halls, student assistants, classes, sororities, fraternities, church groups, junior and senior high school students, extension services, and administrators. Appropriate people are contacted to help determine what kind of program is desired—discussions, films, simulations, and so on.

## STAR POWER

The most frequently used program at CSU has been the Star Power simulation,

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which is a series of bargaining and trading sessions of 5 minutes each in which each participant is supposed to improve his or her status as much as possible. This simulation accommodates from 25 to 30 persons. The exercise discriminates against certain participants and favors others. Once the exercise is completed (usually after 45 minutes), a discussion follows that opens up the entire area of the minority experience in America. The paraprofessional must be able to guide the discussion skillfully, drawing out information and processing feelings. Research over the past three years, based on over 1,000 participants, indicates that 80 percent of the participants experience a positive attitude change toward minorities.

Paraprofessionals in the Star Power program may be either Anglos or minorities; preferably members of both groups participate. Minority paraprofessionals can interpret their experiences to the group, and Anglo paraprofessionals can challenge their peers, focusing on what they understand as Anglos about prejudice and racism. Between Anglo and minority paraprofessionals, the fine nuances of feeling can be drawn out and processed.

### **INSTRUCTIONAL AIDES**

The Instructional Aides program has been developed to implement minority input in academic departments. Since only an ethnic minority member can speak to this in a genuine manner, a requirement of the program is that Instructional Aides be members of a minority group. Four minority students, two black and two Chicano, have been hired as paraprofessionals to implement the program; they are supervised by two members of the university's counseling center staff.

The goals of the program are: (a) to encourage more diversification of minority participation in the university

setting, (b) to stimulate a humanizing process in courses available to a variety of students, (c) to initiate changes in minority students' perceptions and attitudes toward various professions, and (d) to increase the faculty's awareness of the needs and feelings of minority students and minority communities.

In implementing the program, the Instructional Aides become familiar with the course content, either through attending the class in which they are asked to work or through consulting with the faculty member teaching the class. They then make a formal presentation to the class on a topic that is relevant to the course content, and they supply reference and resource materials. For example, in a course in child development designed to train Head Start teachers, the Instructional Aides presented nursery rhymes, songs, and fairy tales found in the Chicano and black cultures, comparing them with songs and stories normally found in the Anglo culture. A follow-up session was held to explore the feelings of the class members relative to being prospective teachers of children from cultures different from their own.

### **TRAINING OF PARAPROFESSIONALS**

The training of paraprofessionals involves an in-depth knowledge of the minority experience: exposure to racial stereotypes and methods of eliminating them; skills in group dynamics; human relations training a la Carkhuff; knowledge of resource materials and persons on campus; and organizational skills. Close supervision determines the readiness of each paraprofessional for fairly independent action. Until such readiness can be determined, the supervisor must be present at the programmed activities in order to provide feedback and help the paraprofessional correct mistakes or enhance skills. Videotaping is an excellent tool for recall and supervision as well as for preparing new paraprofessionals



for this particular aspect of the program. Whether the paraprofessional is acting as a small group discussion leader or as a consultant to departments regarding minority courses, he or she must be able to recognize subtle racism and deal effectively with the matter at hand. This may call for confrontation or diplomacy, and the paraprofessional must be well trained in and possess skills in inter-departmental intervention as well as group leadership.

## REWARDS AND FRUSTRATIONS

Why do students choose to become paraprofessionals? How do faculty and department members feel about the minority programs? Perhaps these questions can best be answered through comments from paraprofessionals and professionals.

Students have expressed the following feelings while working in Star Power programs. Kathy Kelly, a senior in psychology, stated, "I find it frustrating to talk with students who are always expressing the same negative stereotypes, but when I see an attitude change I feel a sense of accomplishment." Ben Garcia, a senior history major, said, "It's a pain trying to get students concerned." Mary Griffin, a sophomore, said, "It's hard to get down to gut level feelings; all they want to do is intellectualize but never say how or what they feel." Mary Ontiveros, a senior in psychology, said, "There's never enough time for training and supervision and planning. Anyway, it freaks me out that the students are so unaware." These comments reflect the problems that arise in working with minority programs: being frustrated with students' lack of concern and awareness, feeling inadequately prepared to cope with situations, and worrying about loss of study time.

Faculty members have typically expressed the following feelings: "I like to use Star Power in my class in 'Intergroup

Relations' because it makes the concept of *power* and discrimination and its adverse effect upon minorities very clear." "Star Power had a very profound effect upon me; I was very personally involved." Faculty members generally find this exercise very stimulating and useful. The sociology department has had over 500 students participate and write term papers on the various dynamics that surface during the Star Power simulation.

Not only do academic departments benefit from the Instructional Aides program, but the students who work as Instructional Aides gain experience and skills. Wil Garcia, a paraprofessional, stated, "I really like the role of paraprofessional because I can turn people on to the Chicano experience. I am not only educating myself about the Chicano experience but share it with others. We, the minority people, need to make the Anglo world aware of our world. By our making them aware, they become more sensitive to the needs and feelings of the minority people. This program enables us to crack the walls of racism and ignorance, and by sharing my knowledge and experience as a Chicano, I feel Anglos will become more aware of their behavior and perhaps change their values." Another paraprofessional, Shirley Mondragon, said, "Being a minority paraprofessional offers me the opportunity to incorporate skills that enable me to develop professionally and at the same time work with various people to enhance their awareness of minority issues. A minority person is sensitive to the issues, having lived through the minority experience."

Summing up the frustrations, university students' low level of awareness is the most frustrating realization for paraprofessionals in minority programs. It is depressing to facilitate groups of students who know practically nothing about racial groups and have never known a person of an ethnic minority. It has been a revelation to paraprofessionals, who felt

that progress in this area was taking place, to come to the university and find awareness of ethnicity to be a blind spot for most university students. Some paraprofessionals become angry at Anglos' sheer disinterest in the problems of minorities and get turned off the program; this frustration is mitigated through discussion with supervisors and paraprofessional colleagues.

The rewards come in the realization of changes in attitudes and behaviors of those involved in the minority programs. Paraprofessionals experience a sense of achievement when breakthroughs occur and students and faculty are influenced by the programs.

### **FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

The Star Power programs will continue to be offered to the university and the community. Some refinement and organizational change may enhance the program, but no large changes are anticipated. Instructional Aides are presently working in the departments of oc-

cupational therapy, speech and hearing science, and child development and family relationships. It is hoped that this program will expand into other academic areas and that the departments will find the program valuable enough to institute their own program and provide the necessary resources.

Evaluation of the program has indicated acceptance of the concept on the part of the students and the faculty. As with any new and innovative program, feedback has been both positive and negative. Continued revision, based on evaluations, will result in a viable program that meets the needs of specific academic departments as well as providing an enriched education for university students.

The use of paraprofessionals in ethnic minority programs at Colorado State University has proved to be fruitful and has resulted in an increased awareness on campus of minority problems and issues. Hopefully, these programs have assisted in alleviating racial tension and have decreased institutional racism. ■

# the development of paraprofessionals in employment work

Paraprofessionals in employment work have most recently been concentrated in community action agencies that serve as prime contractors for categorical manpower programs such as Neighborhood Youth Corps, Operation Mainstream, Concentrated Employment Programs, and Work Incentive Programs. Because of budget cutbacks, program restrictions, and impoundment of funds under the Nixon administration, these programs are dying on the vine. As the agencies retrench, paraprofessional workers are among the first to go.

However, under the new Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), with its decentralization and decategorization, many of these community action agencies are likely to be the ones with which cities and counties contract for the provision of manpower services to disadvantaged populations. CETA is too new for speculation about its impact, but if paraprofessionals are to continue to play a role in employment work, it will be through their employment in CETA-funded agencies.

The establishment of paraprofessionals in employment work took place first in state employment service (ES) agencies and was associated with these agencies' participation in the war on poverty. Yet today, oddly enough, there are few paraprofessionals in state ES agencies, and these agencies are no longer concentrating on the employability of the disadvantaged but rather are returning to their more traditional role

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as a labor exchange mechanism for non-disadvantaged workers. This article identifies some of the historical factors that account for the movement of paraprofessionals out of their first homes in state employment service agencies.

## PEACE CORPS INFLUENCE

It was Project CAUSE (Counselor Aide University Summer Education) in 1964 that launched paraprofessionals as a major movement in manpower work. When the Kennedy administration began planning for the war on poverty, it was natural to transfer its youthful-citizen-activist Peace Corps idea from the international to the national arena. Some Peace Corps staffers were assigned to develop a "domestic Peace Corps," and there began public discussion of the idea—enough discussion to alert resistance. It appeared as if the idea would be stymied, until one of the Peace Corps planners was transferred to the U.S. Department of Labor. There the Manpower Development and Training Act had funds and authorization for projects that could be interpreted to resemble closely the domestic Peace Corps concept. Thus Project CAUSE was initiated. It was located within what was then the Bureau of Employment Security, which at the time included the U.S. Employment Service. This was later to prove significant for the employment paraprofessional movement.

The uniqueness of Project CAUSE was the fact that it was conceived and first operated on the Peace Corps model of nonprofessionals rather than on the rapidly developing indigenous paraprofessional model. Thus, young CAUSE trainees, primarily white and middle class, were recruited and sent to universities for summer training before their assignment to Youth Opportunity Centers to be located in urban ghettos. Following the Peace Corps pattern, there was a spirit of elitism, inspirational

rhetoric, commitment to the underdog, and an intense desire to break out of the shell of passivity vis-à-vis local institutions and practices. The location of CAUSE within the U.S. Department of Labor influenced concentration on problems of employment, but it was not a narrow concentration; the new sociological liberalism saw unemployment of the poor as inextricably connected with problems of health, discrimination, education, family structure, and so forth. Indeed, it was this wide view of the problem of youth unemployment that provided CAUSE trainees with a basis for an identity that would distinguish them from employees of traditional institutions and agencies.

While the first CAUSE recruits were in training, a significant decision was made regarding the Youth Opportunity Centers, and this decision had direct impact on the fate of paraprofessionals in employment work. Center operations were administratively located within the U.S. Employment Service. This meant that the centers would be established and managed by state ES agencies and only indirectly responsive to federal direction. In short, the centers would be controlled by the very agencies of which CAUSE was an implicit criticism. Thus, CAUSE trainees passed state civil service examinations and began working in the centers, which looked more like state employment service offices than had been envisioned. Although services at the centers were expanded to include outreach and an interest in clients' life-problems beyond getting jobs, they fell under the bureaucratic constraints of systems whose structural characteristics were inconsistent with the crisis intervention tasks for which CAUSE trainees had been prepared.

## CHANGE IN SELECTION PROCEDURES

Another major event further influenced the development of paraprofessionals in

employment work: The CAUSE selection process, in its second round, became more effectively targeted on blacks and other minorities. In part this was a response to the increasing pace of the civil rights movement and an alliance with it; in part it was a response to other dynamics.

The alliance of CAUSE with the civil rights movement was a natural response to domestic institutions' resistance to the antibureaucratic thrust that CAUSE had inherited from the Peace Corps concept. The resistance had become so great that continuance of CAUSE was seriously threatened by powerful figures in and out of Congress. Personality tests used for selection were seen as unconstitutional invasions of privacy and as means of sneaking "radicals" into the system. Professional groups of counselors, having just succeeded in getting the U.S. Department of Labor to establish higher professional standards for counseling, were up in arms over the introduction of nonprofessionals. They also interpreted CAUSE as an implicit criticism of their role in the vocational development of poor youths. The result of all this criticism was that CAUSE allied itself with civil rights groups as a way to head off attacks.

It is perhaps worth noting that when the Peace Corps concept was applied domestically it stirred deep concern over its threat to established institutional interests and was readily seen as federal interference in local governmental affairs. Ironically, similar efforts by the Peace Corps to change institutions abroad were seen as admirable, and cries of imperialism were dismissed as paranoid nonsense.

The administration of the Youth Opportunity Centers by state agencies also meant that original selection procedures used in the first round had to be changed from the Peace Corps model to the civil service model. Thus personality tests and clinical judgments were eliminated. In

lieu of state merit system procedures, CAUSE was required to adopt a test prepared by an agency within the civil service system in order to get states to accept CAUSE selection. In reaction to this requirement, CAUSE added counterbalancing test items and recruitment measures that would make traditional civil service selection unbiased. As a result, 33 percent of the second-round recruits were black, in contrast to 6 percent in the first phase. This process moved employment paraprofessionals closer to the "New Careers for the Poor" model.

### NEW CAREER OVERLAY

This development made the employment paraprofessional into a hybrid: From the original Peace Corps model came the image of paraprofessionals as agents of social change both within the institutions they worked in and within those organizations they came into contact with; and from the New Careers model came the image of paraprofessionals as indigenous workers with inevitably low status in employing organizations. The former model implied an alliance between the worker and the poor in which the worker would have his or her main impact on majority-controlled institutions; the latter implied that the worker would have his or her main impact on the poor whom the worker presumably served—an impact as good as or better than traditional professionals had. The process through which these two models became confused was a slow one, and thus some of the resulting internal inconsistencies in the role expectations for paraprofessionals did not become immediately apparent.

It is difficult to describe with any certainty what paraprofessionals did in Youth Opportunity Centers. They tended to be primarily involved in activities that linked the agency to its envi-



ronment (e.g., outreach to recruit clients and follow-up after client placement in some kind of work training). In many agencies they conducted group orientation. In some agencies they did individual counseling, especially regarding matters other than vocational decision making (home and family problems, social problems, etc.). They were most often used for crisis interventions (accompanying a client to other community service agencies, visiting a client detained by the police, etc.). Finally, in many offices it was difficult to see any task difference between counselors and paraprofessionals, except for a tendency to route minority clients to the paraprofessional rather than the counselor—especially if the paraprofessional was also a minority group member.

### IMPACT OF NEW LEGISLATION

The migration of paraprofessionals out of state ES agencies resulted from a combination of pushes and pulls: The push came from inconsistencies between the paraprofessional movement and the structure of the ES as a formal organization; the pull was the attractiveness of the new war on poverty agencies and organizations that followed passage of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. It seems that the establishment of new agencies and organizations under the Office of Economic Opportunity, outside civil service and state merit systems and outside the complex bureaucratic formality of ES, provided an alternative that was more attractive and accessible to CAUSE trainees and would-be CAUSE participants. Within two years there were few CAUSE-trained people left in the ES system, and only a few states maintained and filled civil service classifications for paraprofessionals. Now there are only a handful of Youth Opportunity Centers still in existence around the country.

At the present time the typical pattern

of personnel utilization in manpower work has paraprofessionals concentrated in nonstate agencies and programs (typically in categorical manpower programs such as Operation Mainstream, Neighborhood Youth Corps, New Careers, and public service employment programs) administered under contracts to community action agencies and subcontracts to other community-based organizations such as church organizations and YM-YWCAs. In joint programs such as Concentrated Employment Programs, in which a community action agency is more or less required to subcontract with the state ES for certain service delivery functions, paraprofessionals are employed by the community action agency and professionals by the ES.

### SUMMING UP

This historical account has emphasized several points. First, the paraprofessional movement in employment work represented a "people innovation" (Zaltman, Duncan & Holbek 1973) in which an effort was made to change the policy, structure, and functions of employment institutions by changing the people who carried out policy. Second, the sources of the movement confused the Peace Corps and the New Careers models, producing inconsistencies in the role expectations for paraprofessionals; this confusion was itself a product of political factors called into play by the "people innovation" effort. Third, there were fundamental incompatibilities between the demands of the tasks to be carried out under the new antipoverty policies (to have individual, personalized relationships with clients) and the demands of the bureaucratic structure of the agencies in which these tasks were placed (to treat clients in standardized, routine ways).

In sum, the fate of the paraprofessional movement in employment work



was controlled by internal contradictions in the origins of the movement, by the structure of the agencies in which they were placed, and by successful resistance to changing institutions. The tragedy is that so many paraprofessionals and their critics interpreted that fate as a reflection

on the personal capabilities of the paraprofessionals themselves. ■

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# paraprofessionals in a drug education program

## Edward H. Rudow

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In June of 1971, Colorado State University and a private citizen's group in Fort Collins, Colorado, received a grant from the Federal Office of Education to develop a program of drug education for residents of Fort Collins and students at the university. Early in the program it was decided that the staff should be composed of paraprofessionals working under the direction of a professional psychologist. This decision was based on a number of factors. Since many of the people in the group to which the program was directed were from 13 to 22 years old, it was felt that a younger staff could develop better rapport with them. It was also believed that younger staff members would be more familiar with the nature and type of drug use in the community and the university. It was felt also that, given a limited budget, the best return on dollars spent would be realized by the use of paraprofessionals, since this would provide a larger staff without a noticeable loss in the quality of services offered.

With these factors in mind, selection criteria were established for the paid paraprofessional staff. These criteria included (a) the ability to relate to a variety of individuals in terms of age, socioeconomic class, status, profession, and ethnic background; (b) skills and potentials as a counselor; (c) a fundamental knowledge of drugs, drug use, and the effects of drugs; (d) creativity in develop-

ing educational programs and alternative behavior projects; and (e) devotion to hard work and long hours.

## THE PARAPROFESSIONALS

Bernie, a 27-year-old college graduate who had spent two years as director of The Point, a walk-in crisis center, was the first paraprofessional to be hired. He had developed a reputation and following among many of the community's youth, who saw him as someone they could trust, someone to whom they could bring problems, and someone from whom they would take advice. He had also been active in many of the alternative life style activities in and around the community and the university and therefore had helped to create the impression among members of the counterculture that the center and the work being done there were "okay."

Paula filled the need for a female paraprofessional; she brought to the staff a BS in psychology, counseling training received as a volunteer at Road-House (the university crisis intervention center), a highly specialized professional knowledge of drugs, and familiarity with drug use in the area.

Skip came to the project from Kent State University, where, as a volunteer, he had received training in drug education and crisis intervention. Besides technical knowledge and a counseling background, Skip possessed an eagerness and a desire to work. Since he was new to Fort Collins, he gave the project an unbiased view of itself and of the community.

A large subpopulation in the Fort Collins area is Chicano; this made it mandatory to find someone to work specifically with this group. After three months of searching, Jaycie was found as the answer to that staffing problem. He had lived in Fort Collins for five years and, because he was Chicano, had developed

good relationships with many of the Chicano groups in town and had gained their respect and confidence.

## FUNCTIONS

The functions of the paraprofessionals were quite varied. The center was open from 9:00 A.M. to 10:00 P.M. six days a week. At least one member of the staff was present at all times, which meant that each of them spent at least 30 hours a week in the center. They were responsible for handling phone calls of all types: giving information to people who wanted to know about drugs, helping those who were seeking aid in handling drug problems, talking down people who were high or having bad trips, discussing with parents their concerns about their children's actual or suspected use of drugs, and answering all other inquiries—both drug and nondrug related—that came to the center. In addition to handling phone inquiries and emergencies, they were available to speak or counsel with people who came into the center seeking information or help. In some cases the staff members could handle these situations on their own, but they were familiar with and made use of other agencies or professionals within the community or at the university. Depending on the nature of the problem, individuals were either referred to other agencies or seen exclusively by the staff, but not infrequently they were served jointly by a staff member and an outside agency or a professional resource.

Another of the staff's functions was to develop relationships with the school system and supplement the schools' ongoing drug education programs. Paraprofessionals acted as information resource people and were available to make presentations to student groups on request. In a number of the schools, they were instrumental in forming groups that met



on a regular basis and that functioned as informational groups or rap sessions.

The paraprofessionals were also frequently asked to give speeches or lead discussions for local civic, service, or fraternal organizations in the community. At times they also responded to requests from various industrial companies in the area to conduct training sessions for younger employees.

One of the major intents of the program was to develop alternative behavior projects. A primary staff responsibility, therefore, was to organize such programs. Over the course of a year the staff instituted a number of such programs: an arts and crafts project for underprivileged youth, in conjunction with the welfare department; camping trips to the mountains for youngsters; the Rent-a-Kid program, an employment service for junior and senior high school students; yoga and transcendental meditation classes; and informal rap sessions with young people. These and other projects—some long-term and others one-time-only activities—constantly taxed the ingenuity, creativity, and stamina of the staff. As the drug education project expanded its base, the staff became involved in helping to organize a food cooperative and a free medical clinic; both these ventures proved highly successful but put increasing pressure on the staff's time and work load, although never creating a morale problem.

Jaycie responded to a particular problem within the Chicano community regarding the discontinuation of a summer school program for Chicano youth. He wrote and submitted a proposal to the National Foundation for the Humanities, and his effort was rewarded when he received a \$10,000 grant for a summer school project to replace the old one. A good portion of his time during spring and early summer was spent organizing this program and getting it started. This type of activity was considered within the realm of the paraprofessional's duties, as

the major emphasis in the project was combating the environmental and social pressures that lead to drug abuse in the first place.

## TRAINING

The training for the paraprofessionals evolved around two factors: (a) the nature and effects of drugs and drug abuse and (b) the development of interpersonal skills, especially counseling. Even though most of the staff members had a fairly good "street" knowledge and in some cases technical knowledge of drugs, it was felt that they could benefit from formal training. They, along with the project director, enrolled in a course sponsored by the project and offered at CSU; the course focused on objective assessment of drugs and their use. In addition, staff members were encouraged to read and keep abreast of new and relevant research in the field.

Those staff members who had not received training in crisis intervention were encouraged to participate in the RoadHouse volunteer training program. They also attended any community or university workshops or seminars that were conducted under the auspices of the project. Furthermore, a considerable amount of their training was on the job, especially when they were working in tandem with another agency or professional.

Some drug projects have used ex-drug addicts as part of their paraprofessional staff; this project did not. At the time there was an extremely low incidence of hard-core addiction problems in the area, and therefore it was felt that little if any benefit could have resulted from such a staffing. In fact, it was believed that such a procedure would have produced too many problems—the "ex-drug addict" who is really still using drugs and the individual who has been

"cured" and is going to "save the world," for example.

One of the minor but constant problems facing the director was the interaction between the staff and the establishment. Most of the staff members came to work in the project because they felt that there were things wrong with procedures and circumstances in establishment programs. In their zeal to improve conditions and make changes, they were often at loggerheads with the establishment as represented by school authorities, police, members of the judiciary, and at times even the project's board of directors. The director, therefore, often had to serve as a referee and an arbitrator and was, in general, a

buffer between the staff and the establishment.

### OTHER PERSONNEL

Other paraprofessionals who came under the umbrella of the project and contributed to the project's success were volunteers from RoadHouse, from the CSU drug information team, from the women's crisis center, and from the free medical clinic. In sum, it can be said that though volunteers, paraprofessionals, and professionals may see the world from different perspectives, they can be organized into a constructive force to work on problems common to all of them. ■

# training





# the current status of paraprofessional training

As the use of paraprofessionals has accelerated, considerable attention has been directed toward the problems associated with their use: what to call them, how much independence to give them, what they should do, and how to soothe relations between them and the professional community. Significantly less emphasis has been directed toward how to train these personnel and what kinds of skills they need to perform their tasks effectively. It is our contention that training programs must first teach a basic set of skills: relationship building skills, which have applicability across the broad range of paraprofessional and professional roles. Several programs have been designed to teach this basic set of skills. These programs can be used with both professional and paraprofessional trainees, although they are especially well-suited to the training of paraprofessionals (Carkhuff 1969; Danish & Hauer 1973; Ivey 1971; Kagan 1972). This article briefly examines these programs and elaborates on the implementation of the Danish and Hauer program, focusing specifically on the objectives and processes of the training.

## TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR PARAPROFESSIONALS

Carkhuff (1969), basing his work on the original efforts of Rogers (1957) and expanding on his work with Truax (Truax

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& Carkhuff 1967), identified a series of verbal qualities he deemed essential for establishing helping relationships. These qualities are derived from the "necessary and sufficient conditions" of empathy, unconditional positive regard, and genuineness posited by Rogers. Carkhuff's paraprofessional training program is built around a process of teaching the trainees to make responses at these specific levels of facilitative qualities. Ivey defined his verbal behaviors in terms of specific response categories and added the dimension of nonverbal attending behavior to the list of essential skills. In addition, he proposed a specific training model, microcounseling, as a means of implementing the skills. This model utilizes extensive videotape modeling and feedback to the trainee. Kagan focused his efforts on a different approach to the training of helping relationship skills; using a videotape feedback model previously developed to assist clients' understanding of themselves (Kagan et al. 1967), Kagan expanded and modified the Interpersonal Process Recall procedure to train paraprofessionals. His model focuses less on teaching discrete skills than on assisting the trainee to understand the interaction between a helper and a helpee by recognizing the impact each has on the other. A fourth program designed to teach basic skills is the Danish and Hauer program. This program can be viewed as a model for the design and implementation of teaching basic helping skills and will be considered in some detail.

An examination of a training program entails evaluating two elements of the program: the content of the program and the manner in which the content is taught.

Danish and Hauer have identified six specific skills as being among the essential relationship building skills. They are:

**Stage I:** Understanding Your Needs to Be a Helper

**Stage II:** Using Effective Nonverbal Behavior

**Stage III:** Using Effective Verbal Behavior

**Stage IV:** Using Effective Self-Involving Behavior

**Stage V:** Understanding Others' Communication

**Stage VI:** Establishing Effective Helping Relationships

All six skills include three components involved in being a helper: (a) an understanding of oneself, (b) some knowledge of helping skills, and (c) experience in applying these skills. The Stage I skill represents an attempt to have the trainee examine the basis for his or her decision to help and examine the needs being satisfied by helping. This is generally an area that has been ignored by users of paraprofessionals. Helpers are people first, and training only in response modes overlooks the effect the person who is the helper has on the helping process. The Stage II skill emphasizes the role that nonverbal behavior plays in the helping process. Nonverbal behavior includes face and head movements, hand and arm movements, body movements and orientation, and verbal quality. The Stage III and IV skills involve training in verbal response modes. The response modes include not only the learning of what is generally called "empathy" but the learning of more leading responses, such as questioning, advising, and influencing responses. Then self-involving (confrontation) responses are taught. The learning of these verbal response modes is viewed as a process different from that of "understanding" the feelings and communication of another person, which is the Stage V skill. We believe that such difficult skills as responding to the feelings of others, commonly referred to as empathy, need to be broken down into manageable learning components. The trainee is therefore taught the structure of the var-

ious responses in Stages III and IV, with their accuracy or appropriateness de-emphasized. In Stage V the trainee is taught to be sensitive to the behavior of others. Finally, in Stage VI, the trainee is taught the process of integrating the components in order to make structurally sound responses in an accurate and appropriate manner.

The second means of examining the programs is to consider the processes used to teach the content. One characteristic of all four training programs is that each uses a different process to teach content, one based on a theoretical rationale rather than on the whim of a trainer. All four generally employ the integrated didactic-experiential format proposed by Truax and Carkhuff. Kagan and Ivey rely extensively on the use of videotaping as a means of feedback. Danish and Hauer have labeled their program "skill learning" and have tried to develop a procedure consonant with the learning of skills, such as ball skills (Whiting 1969), and with general instructional principles (Gage 1963; Gagne 1970). Ivey also advocates a skill learning approach.

The skill learning model assumes that having knowledge about the skills is not enough. Effective learning involves acquiring a conceptual understanding of the components of the skill (knowledge), viewing others demonstrate the various aspects of the skill (modeling), and having an opportunity to use the skill (practice). It is this combination of behaviorally defined constructs, taught in a manner adapted for skill learning, that makes up the program.

More specifically, the process of skill training consists of seven steps: (a) the skill is defined in behavioral terms, (b) the rationale for the skill is discussed, (c) a skill attainment level is specified, (d) models are used to demonstrate both effective and ineffective examples of the skill, (e) opportunities are provided for extensive supervised practice of the skill,

(f) homework is assigned to assist in the generalization process, (g) an evaluation is conducted using behavioral checklists and peer and trainer feedback to determine whether the attainment level has been achieved.

While program descriptions may seem reasonable on paper, trainers often experience difficulties in implementing programs designed by others. Thus, the delivery system for training programs becomes a necessary consideration.

## DELIVERY SYSTEMS FOR TRAINING

Having certain skills does not ensure that one can teach them to others. Additional skill is needed to present the training materials in such a way that trainees can accept the material's relevance and learn it efficiently and effectively. It is our experience that when well-thought-out and well-designed training programs fail, it is not only because the trainer lacks the skills to be taught and is therefore an ineffective model but also because the trainer lacks the skill to implement the program. When the program is conducted and is unsuccessful, the trainer questions "whether the program really works."

The developers of the four programs described here have initiated procedures to "trainer-proof" their programs. For example, Danish and Hauer have developed a leader's manual to accompany the trainee's workbook. The manual contains sections on the logistics of training (who can profit by the training, how many trainees can be trained, where and when training should occur, the necessary equipment, and the schedule for the training), leadership considerations (the assumptions under which the program is conducted and the skills required for training), and suggestions for introducing the program. Also, the procedures to be followed and the possible difficulties encountered in implementing the pro-



cedures are detailed. Kagan and Ivey have developed written and visual materials to assist the trainer in conducting their programs, and Carkhuff and his associates offer consultation and training services through Carkhuff's consulting firm.

## **TOWARD A CONSUMER'S GUIDE FOR TRAINING**

We have explored the current status of the training of paraprofessionals, particularly the technology of this training, by examining four systematic training programs. While there is considerable overlap among the programs, especially in their goals, their training procedures are clearly different. Although they approach the technology of training from different perspectives, all seem to have certain characteristics that facilitate successful outcomes, namely, clear training goals and procedures and some form of preparation for the trainer. Given these similarities and differences, how does a consumer choose the program that best fits his or her needs?

As a scientific professional, one could decide to select the most effective program based on research evidence. Each program has a body of research being built to support its effectiveness. Unfortunately, no attempt has been made to empirically compare the training programs, although D'Augelli (1973) has suggested a model that would facilitate research comparisons. The consumer, therefore, may have to examine other factors in order to make a decision about the "goodness of fit" between his or her needs and the program's goals and processes. For example, are the program's and the consumer's objectives compatible? Are the length, cost, and number of people to be trained in the program commensurate with the resources and demands of the consumer? Does the con-

sumer have the necessary equipment to implement the program? Does the consumer have a trainer skilled enough to deliver the program? Finally, is the program sufficiently flexible so that the consumer can vary the format to meet his or her needs without sacrificing the program's impact?

The issue of which training program to choose for paraprofessional programs is a complex problem for a consumer. Answers do not come easily. What does stand out is that if paraprofessionals are to function effectively, they will need to be trained. And the training program should be systematic and well planned, whether it is one of the "packaged" programs presented in this article or a program designed and implemented by the consumer. ■

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Additional information about the programs described in this article can be obtained from:

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# associate degree programs for human services workers

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The associate degree mental health/human services (AD MH/HS) worker is an important new source of manpower in the human services field. There are currently 174 colleges in 44 states offering associate degrees with a mental health or human services focus, and 37 colleges are either actively planning or considering beginning such a program in the next two or three years. As of June 1974 these programs had graduated an estimated 11,000 workers—a figure that is expected to exceed 20,000 by June 1976.

For the last three years, the Center for Human Services Research at Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine has been studying the training, employment, use, and impact of AD MH/HS graduates within the human services field. The data and other information in this article are based on this research, which includes a number of longitudinal surveys and field studies.

One of the problems in describing and understanding this movement is that there are more than 30 different program titles, as well as diverse labels that are applied to program graduates (e.g., mental health associate, mental health technician, and human services worker). Mental health associate (MHA) seems to have gained increasing acceptance in the last several years and will be used here as the generic label for these graduates.

The goal of most of these programs has been to educate, in two years, a generalist worker who could move into a



wide range of helping roles within the broad MH/HS field. The rationale has been that there exists a common core of attitudes, skills, and knowledge that apply to a variety of client groups and settings. Equipped with these competencies, graduates could, with inservice training, make effective contributions to agencies involved in mental health, education, welfare, retardation, corrections, and other areas. The information in this article is based primarily on these generalist programs.

Other associate degree programs have concentrated on specific target populations (e.g., children—as in child development programs; the aged; and drug abusers) or have trained students for roles within specific professional disciplines (e.g., as social work assistants, psychological assistants, and recreation aides). These more specialized programs are also growing in number, and they will surely have an important impact on manpower trends within the human services.

## SCREENING

While about half of the MH/HS educational programs report using some sort of screening procedures to select prospective students, most are not involved in what could be called rigorous screening. The typical approach is to interview prospective students concerning their MH/HS background, interests, and aspirations. Moreover, most of the community colleges housing these programs characteristically have an open-door policy that makes it necessary for directors to accept any high school graduate who applies. Program directors in open-door schools often feel that this policy prevents their eliminating borderline candidates. Nearly all directors, however, state that they "counsel out" some students.

One of the interesting consequences

of the high number of open-door policies is that the students tend to reflect the racial, age, socioeconomic, and other demographic characteristics of the community at large. A noticeable exception is sex; about 80 percent of all students are women.

## CURRICULUM

While the actual curriculums of the 174 active programs differ somewhat in terms of course titles and content, the average program has certain characteristics common to all programs. It includes at least two courses per term that are MH/HS oriented. These courses ordinarily include (a) an introduction to the MH/HS area; (b) an overview of helping approaches; and (c) specific skills training in interviewing, the observation and recording of behavior, individual counseling, group dynamics, activity therapy, and behavior modification. These course areas are supplemented by relevant courses drawn from those already offered by the college. Among the most frequently reported in this group are introductory courses in psychology and sociology, social problems, marriage and the family, developmental psychology, social psychology, abnormal psychology, the exceptional child, and anatomy and physiology.

Each student is required to spend a substantial number of hours in fieldwork at local helping agencies. Ordinarily this experience begins early (frequently during the first semester) and continues throughout the remainder of the program. The average program maintains working relationships with 14 different agencies for this fieldwork component; students can therefore become familiar with a wide range of service settings and gain in-depth experience in several. Supervision is nearly always provided by a professional who works in the setting. Frequently students from different set-

tings meet with program faculty each week to share experiences and learn from each other. Some programs have special full-time fieldwork placements available during the summer. Graduate MHAs consistently rate their fieldwork experiences as the most important and helpful aspect of the curriculum.

Philosophies underlying these programs reflect the differing views of the directors and faculty members. Many, however, have a strong humanistic flavor and aim to develop attitudes in graduates that emphasize the unique, human qualities of the individual client as a whole person. Related to this is a set of objectives that aims to promote self-understanding (insight) in MHAs as well as an orientation toward continued personal growth after graduation. Some form of encounter group and other growth techniques from the applied behavioral sciences are frequently incorporated into the curriculum.

Although the label "paraprofessional" can be used to identify these workers, there is a strong sentiment among AD MH/HS programs to regard graduates as new, beginning level professionals and to work toward developing career ladders that would allow these workers upward mobility into the traditional professional levels of competence and responsibility.

The faculty members of these programs are drawn from different disciplines in order to support the generalist orientation. Program directors represent over 40 different professional specialties.

## **EMPLOYMENT AND WORK ACTIVITIES**

Employment data for graduates have been generally favorable. An earlier study indicated that about 85 percent of all graduates as of June 1971 had been able to find employment in the MH/HS field. The last two years, however, have presented a mixed picture. The tightening national job market has decreased

the percentage of graduates obtaining MH/HS employment to somewhere near 50 percent. The actual number of graduates employed has actually increased, however; the total percentage employed annually has been lower, in part, because the number of new graduates has increased more rapidly than have jobs. Many graduates have responded to the tight job market by continuing their formal education and entering bachelor's degree programs.

The major employers of graduates to date have been state hospitals (40 percent) and community mental health centers (30 percent). The remainder of those employed in MH/HS work in numerous other educational and treatment programs. The graduates perform a wide range of professional and support activities, and their supervisors rate their performance of these activities quite high; over 90 percent of the MHAs received ratings of "excellent," "good," or "satisfactory," most of the ratings falling in the first category.

The role of the new professional is still largely undefined. Supervisors voiced much initial confusion as to how graduates could best be used in an agency. Moreover, the role depends not only on the agency and its culture and therapeutic models but also on the individual graduate's personality, work experience, competencies, and education.

While some consider role ambiguity a detriment, others view it quite favorably. Several supervisors noted that they were able to use graduates to perform a number of services for clients that otherwise would have gone undone (for lack of someone to do them) or would have taken longer (the use of a professional would have involved red tape in making referrals). Some MHAs have received further specialized training after graduation and are working in jobs as drug abuse counselors, speech and hearing therapists, educators for the blind, probation officers, work supervisors in



sheltered workshops, and the like. In addition, a number of new work roles have been developed to capitalize on the unique aspects of the generalist background of MHAs.

One such role is that of teaching assistant in special education. This worker functions under the supervision of a master teacher (a professional) in the special education program of a private or public school system. The MHA is responsible for carrying out the direct teaching activities for a small group of children with handicaps (retardation, emotional disturbance, visual or auditory disability, etc.). The master teacher has overall responsibility for the functioning of several such assistants and the development of the basic curriculum. The MHA can use the master teacher and other available professionals as consultants whenever necessary. This role requires a far greater level of responsibility than that of the teaching assistant who only prepares teaching materials or does other routine work to support the teacher. The MHA carries out the primary teaching functions and maintains appropriate records on the progress of the children. The recent trend to provide public school education for all children—despite any handicaps—has accentuated the shortage of trained personnel in special education and caused many agencies to implement or consider the use of beginning professionals in this way.

### UNRESOLVED ISSUES

Numerous factors will affect the overall success of the MHA movement. These factors include the development of state career lattices, changes in state and federal funding patterns, acceptance by other mental health professionals and staff, attitude changes toward the associate degree per se, and a general responsiveness of programs to local manpower needs. Unfortunately, too much

of the burden for bringing about these desired changes lies with program directors. Not only are they usually overloaded with full-time teaching and administrative responsibilities, but they often have had little training or experience in carrying out an advocacy function such as that needed to promote the employment of their graduates.

Many program directors and MHAs have been frustrated by the fact that some employers prefer bachelor's level workers—regardless of their experience or skill training—to the more specifically trained MHAs. Directors point out that their graduates are usually mature (the average age is about 30) and have had courses and fieldwork training comparable to that of many master's level programs.

Because of the value placed on higher degrees, three out of every four MHAs are either actively pursuing a bachelor's degree or plan to do so within five years. One consequence of MHAs continuing their education has been the influence on the development of new bachelor's level programs emphasizing job readiness for the MH/HS field on graduation. If these new bachelor's programs can capitalize on the specific preparations that MHAs bring with them, it may well mean better-trained graduates throughout higher education; for fieldwork gives students a chance to find out before they graduate whether their interests and aptitudes lie within MH/HS. It also gives them the opportunity of integrating their classroom learnings on providing consumer services into the daily work of an agency.

While evaluation efforts thus far support the hypothesis that MHAs can make valuable contributions in many different settings, the overall success of this movement has not yet been demonstrated. Much of this success will depend on the creative planning for their use by those in agency administrative positions. ■



# training professionals to work with paraprofessionals

## Marv Moore

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The purpose of this article is to provide a blueprint for systematically training mental health professionals to work effectively with their paraprofessionals. The blueprint's major components consist of delineating several qualifications and skills requisite for such professionals, developing a training model for acquisition of skills, and following an example of one skill through the training model.

### QUALIFICATIONS AND REQUISITE SKILLS

I have found that individuals capable of training paraprofessionals are, first of all, mature professionals. Effective paraprofessional trainers function at a high level of competence in one or more professional areas. Consequently, they clearly possess enough confidence in their professional skills to solicit and accept paraprofessionals in their programs. They are individuals with good work habits and self-discipline, qualities that serve as models for paraprofessionals. They are growing individuals who are flexible enough to learn new skills for which they were not initially trained and to accept honest feedback from paraprofessionals. They are strong enough to be genuinely pleased when some of their well-trained paraprofessionals perform parts of their shared responsibilities better than they do. And,



although effective trainers are more competent than paraprofessionals in skills they attempt to teach, professionals can acknowledge their limitations and foster in paraprofessionals skill acquisition from other persons.

In addition to the general attributes of professional maturity and competence in a specific area, professional trainers need to acquire several specific skills (Delworth, Sherwood & Casaburri 1974). These skills, necessary for the maintenance of a viable paraprofessional program, include the following: the understanding and ability to systematically screen and select applicants for the paraprofessional positions; the ability to secure and sustain funding for paraprofessionals selected and trained; the capacity to supervise and train paraprofessionals; and the understanding and ability to develop, implement, and evaluate mental health programs.

### THE TRAINING PROCESS

Training procedures to teach the above skills to professionals follow a systematic competence-building sequence. The three steps described below are the important elements in the training sequence. These sequential steps represent a combining of the microcounseling technology (Ivey 1971) and the Moore and Delworth (1972) behavior change training model.

**Step 1:** Translate the broader skill into behavioral descriptions of the subskills to be mastered by the professional.

**Step 2:** Provide a training arena in which the behavioralized tasks may be explained, modeled, role played, actually practiced, and discussed until mastery is achieved.

**Step 3:** Provide ongoing consultation and supervision to the professional as he or she works with the paraprofessionals in order to ensure quality training and

facilitate continued enhancement of skills.

The skill of adequately training and supervising paraprofessionals can be followed through the three steps to illustrate the training sequence. Below is a syllabus prepared for a workshop conducted at Colorado State University in the fall of 1974 for ten to twelve supervisors and their paraprofessionals; the syllabus is illustrative of Step 1.

### SYLLABUS FOR SUPERVISION TASK

The object of this syllabus is to define and teach to professionals several essential tasks in the process of supervising paraprofessionals. Each task is supported by strategies for task accomplishment.

#### Task A: Assess the Paraprofessional's Beginning Skill Level

If the most qualified individual has been selected as paraprofessional, the supervisor will probably already know a great deal about his or her specific skills. Whenever a new task is to be undertaken by a paraprofessional, it is important that the task's difficulty is matched with the paraprofessional's performance level at the time. Asking paraprofessionals how they feel about a new responsibility usually provides sufficient information about their general ability to handle the task. Asking them to role play a portion of the task gives immediate data about whether additional training is necessary.

#### Task B: Teach the Paraprofessional How to Make Use of Supervision

It is helpful for each party to begin a new professional/paraprofessional partnership by individually specifying goals and expectations for the joint effort. To this end, a mutual list of objectives is prepared, plans for implementing each objective are outlined, and procedures for mutually evaluating progress are

specified. The supervision session then consists of sharing previously prepared agendas, quickly developing a mutual agenda that meets as many needs as possible for each party, and working through as many items as possible in the time allotted. Finally, time is allowed at the end of every supervisory session for mutual feedback about the supervisory process.

### **Task C: Teach the Paraprofessional the Necessary Skills for Successful Completion of the Job**

Since a significant amount of supervisory time may consist of helping the paraprofessional acquire new competencies, a systematic process of skill building is very important. Recommended is a five-step training model (Delworth & Moore 1974; Moore & Delworth 1972).

1. Explain the new skill to the paraprofessional in behavioral terms as much as possible.

2. Model for the paraprofessional the skill effectively being performed.

3. Provide role playing practice for the paraprofessional in the skill and follow it with immediate performance feedback until competence is reached.

4. Observe and give performance feedback to the paraprofessional as he or she practices the skill with real clients.

5. Process together the paraprofessional's feelings and cognitions experienced during Steps 3 and 4.

### **Task D: Help the Paraprofessional Deal with Ambivalence and Anxiety about Being Evaluated**

Paraprofessionals usually have some difficulty participating freely in the supervisory relationship. On the one hand, the paraprofessionals are fairly autonomous, providing services that are valued and that afford them a sense of competence. On the other hand, all activities are monitored and evaluated by the supervisor. Thus, paraprofessionals find themselves in a conflicting role and often

express anger that they are not completely autonomous. Paraprofessionals deal with this ambivalence in various ways. One might bring to the supervisor examples of good work only, carefully avoiding the presentation of anything that might suggest the need for assistance. Another might miss scheduled supervisory sessions or come late, so that there is not enough time to tackle important issues. Still another might work very hard to solicit the supervisor's expectations and then dependently try to acquiesce to them. In working with the ambivalence of paraprofessionals in supervision, the following set of working principles and strategies will help.

1. Work hard to get mutual training objectives concretely defined early in the professional/paraprofessional relationship.

2. Listen a lot, as empathically as possible (especially in the early stages of supervision), with two specific aims: (a) to communicate respect and understanding of the paraprofessional's feelings and real skills and (b) to understand the paraprofessional's particular style of work in dealing with the ambivalence of supervision, if it exists.

3. Give as much positive reinforcement as possible through genuine approval and praise of skills and competencies demonstrated.

4. Do everything possible to help the paraprofessional have, as soon as possible, many successful work experiences; this provides the paraprofessional a "savings account" of competence and facilitates facing the failures that come with every job experience.

5. Continuously expect the paraprofessional to be the best that he or she can within the limits of the job; and respectfully point out when this is not the case.

6. Approach the paraprofessional's mistakes, feelings of inadequacy, and failures to perform as expected as a natural happening and with an expectancy that discussing them will lead to



new feelings of competence. It is helpful to share with paraprofessionals the notion that mistakes are necessary but not sufficient for growth in any professional experience.

7. Try to be available to paraprofessionals for those extra times when they need professional or personal support.

8. Try to pitch in and help with the monotonous or tedious jobs that have to be done so that the paraprofessional does not feel used.

9. Attempt to give the paraprofessional as much ownership as possible in the program being jointly conducted.

10. Model as well as possible the standards expected of paraprofessionals.

11. Whenever the process reaches an impasse, call in a colleague to help as an unbiased third party.

#### **Task E: Help the Paraprofessional Identify and Eliminate Overextension**

Many paraprofessionals, after a few months, find themselves carrying more responsibility or working longer hours than the initial job description required. Typically, paraprofessionals get very excited about their work and, as their competence in "really making a difference in someone's life" increases, take on more than they can handle. Because paraprofessionals often work part-time and have many other commitments, it is important that they learn to place work in its proper perspective. Helping paraprofessionals accomplish this sometimes difficult goal is one of the most significant tasks in the supervisory contract.

The professional supervisor may find this strategy helpful with paraprofessionals in such a situation. First, the paraprofessional is asked to list all current responsibilities and commitments, the relative priority of each, and the actual time needed for each. The list is then studied by the supervisor and the paraprofessional, and items are added to it—such things as time for relaxation and play, study time, and time for intimacy

with family and loved ones. Finally, the supervisor helps the paraprofessional plan and implement more effective time management, with the overall goal of balancing personal needs for work, relaxation, and loving experiences.

#### **WORKSHOP AND FOLLOW-UP**

The syllabus is distributed to all participants in a one-day workshop. This workshop for professionals and paraprofessionals is the implementation of Step 2 in the training process; it is comprised of these activities:

1. All participants (professional supervisors and their paraprofessionals) discuss and demonstrate their understanding of the central task of supervision as outlined in the syllabus.

2. The professional supervisors practice—with performance feedback—as many of the basic supervisory tasks as possible.

3. Paraprofessionals learn and practice some concrete ways to make use of the supervisory relationship.

4. Each professional/paraprofessional partnership develops a set of specific behavior objectives to work toward after the workshop.

The workshop format consists of action-oriented exercises, structured so far as possible by the sequence described in Step 2 of the training process and Task C of the syllabus. After the workshop, Step 3 is implemented: The director of the workshop meets regularly with all paraprofessional supervisors, either as a group or individually, to monitor their ongoing supervisory activities. This consultative process is initiated by discussing and working toward the objectives developed at the end of the workshop. A case presentation format in which participating professionals share their successes and present supervisory problems encountered affords continuous new material for practice in role playing. Finally, the director conducts two simi-

larly constructed workshops during the year that focus on other supervisory and training skills.

### A FINAL COMMENT

The process described here provides a working outline for the development of a systematic structure for training trainers and supervisors of paraprofessionals within and for mental health agencies. Such a structure will not emerge and endure without the strong leadership and guidance of qualified professionals. It is hoped that this article will encourage other counselors to become such leaders. Happily, many agencies are effectively employing and training paraprofessionals; a body of practical, usable literature is rapidly developing; and regional and national workshops are frequently

taking place. The goal of mature programs at the graduate professional level for training trainers of paraprofessionals is well within reach. ■

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# **the paraprofessionals**



# the paraprofessional as administrator: an innovative role

The term *paraprofessional* seems to have as many definitions as there are individuals who use it. To me, a paraprofessional—in counseling, social work, or psychology—is any individual who engages in activities usually reserved for a professional, that is, an individual with an advanced degree in the field. In addition to degree level, there are other major differences between a paraprofessional and a professional. The paraprofessional cannot charge private-practice fees and is usually employed by an agency and normally makes less than a professional; the paraprofessional has less autonomy in choosing a job situation; the paraprofessional does not usually have the same level and/or number of skills as does the professional; and the paraprofessional needs a regularly scheduled supervisory session from a competent professional in the field. Like the professional, however, the paraprofessional engages in professional tasks and has professional responsibilities. This article focuses on my experience as a paraprofessional in a community-based counseling center, describing my training, experience, and current position.

## TRAINING

Long before I heard the term *paraprofessional*, I was enrolled in college as a journalism major. During this time I was a work-study student, functioning in such roles as secretary/receptionist, book-

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keeper, and editor. As a result of this experience, I gained vital organizational skills and the confidence of co-workers, and I earned an invaluable letter of recommendation.

About two years later I changed my major to psychology and simultaneously changed jobs, now working for the department of psychology. During this time I received consistent, prolonged exposure to a professional in the helping field of clinical psychology, and I gained several additional skills. I received literally hundreds of hours of informal supervision in the areas of personality dynamics and behavior pathology; I gained the ability to supervise and train other work-study students; and I learned firsthand the tasks of a professional, the meaning of confidentiality, and the importance of professional responsibility. And once again I earned an invaluable letter of recommendation. During this time I also supplemented my income by typing, abstracting, editing, and proofreading master and doctoral dissertations in the field of psychology. Finally, in March 1972, I graduated with a BS in psychology.

## EXPERIENCE

After graduation I worked for three months in the psychology service of a Veterans Administration hospital. Here my previous learning solidified, especially in terms of recognizing behavior pathology. After this experience I returned to the university and became employed as an administrative secretary in the university counseling center. It was here that I was first introduced to the concept of paraprofessionalism. Not only did the term's meaning become concrete in my mind, but I received very careful, systematic training and supervision in what it meant to be a non-PhD-level professional. At that time I also learned about the intricate, behind-the-scenes workings of counseling centers

and other mental health services. I saw what was needed to serve even one client effectively: publicity; training; community relations; a strong liaison with other resource agencies; models; planning; pilot studies; research; evaluation; program development, implementation, and evaluation; and budgeting. All of this prepared me for my current position as assistant director of a community-based counseling center.

## CURRENT POSITION

The Community Counseling Center, Inc., is a community-based organization in Loveland, Colorado, a town of about 19,000 persons. It is funded by revenue-sharing money, the United Fund, and private donations. There are no fees for any of the services offered. The impetus for the center came from the dictate on various government levels that mental health concerns were to be handled more and more on the community level and from the tremendous growth in drug abuse that reached a climax in the late sixties and early seventies. Initially, therefore, the center was a drug abuse and education center; later it expanded its services into the crisis intervention area and finally became a full-fledged counseling center.

Currently the center has five staff counselors and one secretary. The director has his doctorate in psychology, and one of the counselors has his master's in guidance and counseling. The rest of the staff members, however, are truly at the paraprofessional level. I have a BS in psychology; one person is in the process of finishing her BA in social work; and the other staff member acquired her expertise through an inservice training program on the psychiatric ward of a large metropolitan hospital.

The center offers the full range of counseling services plus three ancillary functions—a twenty-four-hour emergency telephone service, a referral ser-



vice, and training classes. Two types of training classes are offered. The first type is for individuals who want to answer telephones as part of the emergency phone service; the second type is known as "Adult Listeners Classes," and its main emphasis is on communication and interpersonal skills.

Currently the center staff can handle about thirty hours of client contact a week, not including individuals contacted through training classes, referrals, phone contacts, groups, or walk-ins. The clientele consists of individuals, groups, and families of all age ranges.

Although the staff can effectively intervene in most emotional and psychological problem areas, it is our policy to refer elsewhere those who are extremely ill or psychotic; those whose primary problem is excessive use of alcohol or drugs; those whose primary problem is lack of money, food, or shelter; those whose primary problem is medical; and those who are in treatment with another agency for the same problem.

My specific duties and responsibilities fall roughly into four areas. The first area is that of counseling, referrals, and crisis intervention. It is in this area exclusively that I receive supervision. The therapeutic modalities I use most frequently are the rational-emotive approach and the behavioristic approach. My second main function is in the area of administrative responsibilities, and I share these duties with the part-time director. The duties include monitoring and approving all expenditures, raising funds, developing and implementing new programs and pilot projects, researching and evaluating services, and maintaining client contact records. My third major job responsibility is in the area of training. Currently I am training our first class of crisis center volunteers, with the help of a paid co-trainer from outside the center. There are ten individuals enrolled in this training, which consists of seventy hours over about a

twelve-week period. My fourth area of responsibility is that of solidifying current programs and establishing a close working liaison with other social service organizations in the area.

## **PROBLEMS**

### **Agency Problems**

As with any organization, our center also has its problems. The first major problem is due to the fact that for the past three years the center has relied to a great extent on the assistance of volunteers. As the agency attempts to increase funding and move toward a more professional stance, problems arise when an attempt is made to upgrade services, since this entails either supervising, retraining, or even terminating individuals. The second main problem is that of overcoming the center's previous image as a drug control and information center. The battle to gain recognition as a full-scale counseling agency has definitely been an uphill climb. The third major problem revolves around funding. The center is funded from year to year, so every year the battle for scarce money starts all over again.

### **Personal Problems**

I have had to overcome many obstacles in order to function in my present position. Even before interviewing for the job, I felt obligated to get a haircut and buy some new clothes. An obstacle I encounter on the job is that of establishing my own expertise. In the first place, I look younger than I am, and several clients have asked me about my age. It has even been suggested that I grow a moustache or a beard in order to overcome this. (Ironically, my youthful appearance is an asset in working with adolescents.) In the second place, I'm often questioned by clients and professionals alike as to my skills and training. To get around this I rely heavily on my title of assistant director. If that fails, I proceed

with an explanation of paraprofessionalism, complete with my personal training, background, and supervised experiences. Another problem I'm faced with is that of having to make decisions when I'm not a hundred percent sure of myself, especially in the areas of public relations and "politics." These areas are new to me, and I'm still not conversant in the subtle complexities involved. Many times I've written a public news release or a letter, only to have it "toned down" by my supervisor or the board of directors on the grounds that it might be offensive or that it didn't take into account the prevailing community "feeling."

I also feel anxiety over the public image I must convey in a relatively small town. I'm not used to watching my dress or being on public display. To help overcome this, I usually leave town on weekends and visit friends in another, larger city. This break provides me with a release from the feeling that I have to watch everything I say and do.

My acceptance within the community is coming gradually but firmly. In spite of my youthful appearance and lack of a PhD, my job performance is paying off. Thus, although I initially must explain my training and experience to a new client or an agency representative, once I've worked with the individual, future contacts are based largely on my previous performance and reputation.

Another source of job-related anxiety revolves around my capacity as a decision maker in a counseling role. Although I've never regretted what I've done in a counseling intervention situation, I've

often had to make snap decisions about something without the luxury of consultation with my supervisor beforehand. I know that my anxiety stems from my not having had years of experience and from the fact that counseling is a risky occupation. I've weathered all of these situations so far, but I'm sure they'll remain a source of anxiety for some time to come.

## OPPORTUNITIES

So far, two opportunities for me have stood out in this job. One has been the chance to be employed at something I love without needing another four or five years of schooling. Second, and more important, has been the chance to intervene effectively in other people's lives and influence their future in a positive direction. In terms of the agency, my primary opportunity is the potential of moving into developmental and preventive counseling programs, thus influencing the community to a far greater extent than is possible through the use of traditional one-to-one counseling.

In regard to the future, there are three primary goals for this agency: to establish firmly the center's need within the community, to expand the number of staff members, and to insure a more stable financial backing. In a personal vein, I intend to stay with this agency for at least two more years, during which time I would also like to do graduate work. My job will enable me to keep abreast of trends in the community mental health field, which might not be possible if I were a full-time student. ■

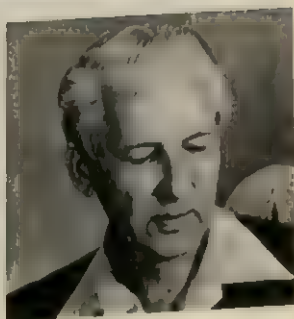
# the new professional emerges

There is always something too final in attaching labels to individuals. It imprisons them and denies their unique individuality. Once attached, a label tends to cling to a person, for better or worse—whether the label happens to be “professional,” “new professional,” “retardate,” “psychopath,” “convict,” or “radical.”

But we cannot deny the convenience of labels as a starting point for communication—provided we look behind the tags. They permit us to recognize people with ideas and purposes similar to our own. This is what happened when we, the co-authors of this article, met six years ago in a professional association for California psychiatric technicians. Frank was a licensed psychiatric technician who was later to become president of the state association and a regional director of its parent national association. Zoltan was a staff member of both associations, with responsibility for research, publications, curriculum development, and other aspects of “professionalization.” Formally, the relationship was between a direct service paraprofessional and a professional administrator and educator who supported the career aspirations of human service paraprofessionals. But the formal relationship explains little of the common understanding that united us in the search for valid directions in human services. For that we have to look to the forces that have shaped and are shaping our values, attitudes, and behavior.

## Frank Favela Zoltan Fuzessery

*Frank Favela (top) is a Training Officer in the Manpower Training and Development Division of the California Department of Health in Sacramento. Zoltan Fuzessery (bottom) is Administrator of the Academy of Human Service Sciences in Lombard, Illinois.*





We have observed the scene, have participated in the action, have become aware of and frustrated by the hang-ups of professionals and paraprofessionals, have been aroused by the beat of excitingly new sounds, and have had to meet the challenge of ever-expanding human needs. We have been caught up by the fervid earnestness of civil rights advocates, which has reinforced our own values and needs. Frank, being a Chicano with a police record for juvenile convictions, found it difficult to get a job after graduation from high school. The Watts riots influenced young Chicanos like Frank to become activists for greater educational and job opportunities and for new careers in human services. These same values and energies in them were also directed toward helping the mentally handicapped and the emotionally disturbed to develop their own potential.

The surge of "consumerism" and of people's right to participate in decisions that would affect their well-being and welfare was reflected in our own actions that were directed toward giving paraprofessionals a greater role in shaping their own destinies as well as a greater impact in milieu therapy and patient government for the residents of state hospitals.

## TWO SIDES OF A COIN

Perhaps the key word in the title of this article is *emerges*. It implies the flexibility for development in new directions and the absence of the rigidity that is so characteristic of some long-established groups and concepts. We have been intensely aware of the great discrepancies that exist between the fine intentions of laws and their actual implementation and between professional codes and goals and professionals' actual conduct and attitudes. It has made us cautious of unquestioningly accepting directions that may have the backing of time and tradition.

We cannot think of "profession" without considering "professionalism." What are the intricate patterns of thinking and doing that lead from the altruism of the professional to the self-interest of professionalism? We must know them to avoid the pitfalls.

Professionals see themselves as engaged in a full-time occupation requiring their best efforts. They have an unqualified commitment to a cause or a calling because they believe completely in its worth. Their commitment to action in behalf of their clients is made possible through specialized training and education in useful knowledge and skills. Their commitment is to serve those who need their skill and knowledge. Professionals have a continuing responsibility to improve their provision of appropriate and efficient service. To do this they must have freedom to develop their own capabilities and establish standards of performance to safeguard the best interests of the people they serve.

These are fine goals to which all providers of service should be dedicated. But it is evident that there is a need for continual rededication and appraisal of the paths actually traveled. Professionalism can become an obstacle to meeting the needs of people. We have seen its cruel and unfortunate manifestations in jurisdictional battles between classes of professionals and paraprofessionals. Each group has viewed these battles as fights for survival, each believing that it had the best answer to the needs of the individual. Often, however, the actual needs of the individual are forgotten in the professional's compulsive practice of performing routine rather than personalized services.

Professionals tend to be more interested in the tasks they are performing than in the individual for whom they should be providing the service. They detach themselves professionally from the individual. Subtly or openly they show their disdain for certain kinds of

patients or clients, such as the aged person, the alcoholic, and the chronic psychiatric patient. This disdain may also be directed toward nonprofessionals and paraprofessionals and their lack of training. In this regard professionals probably give unrealistic weight to irrelevant academic qualification and certification. We, as new professionals, hope we can benefit from the best ideals and practices of professionals and avoid the self-interest that professionalism implies.

## WE BELIEVE

Though there is much in the present scene that we doubt or reject, there are many assumptions and concepts that we believe to be sound. We shall work for these, evaluate their effects, and help change them when more valid ideas are developed.

### Priorities

Perhaps our most basic view or assumption is that we are engaged in a struggle to meet human needs of such magnitude that traditional systems and approaches are inadequate. We have a commitment to aid in bringing about change. All elements of the traditional system must be appraised and reappraised, and those that are found deficient in providing present and anticipated human service needs must be discarded or modified. When necessary, new elements must be created. This applies equally to human service disciplines and the roles of those who work in them, the educational and the service delivery systems, the criteria for evaluating performance, and the fundamental objectives of human service.

The magnitude of the problem of meeting human needs is analogous to the catastrophic crisis of a war situation. The small military medical services prior to World War II bore little resemblance to the service forces that supported the millions of fighting men around the

world on land, air, and sea. The total resources of the nation—its technology, economy, educational system, communication system, and transportation system—were put into operation for military or civil defense. The medical service had to revamp its entire structure for developing and training manpower. It established echelons of medical support with special units developed to seek, treat, and evacuate casualties quickly and effectively and to return them to duty as soon as possible. It was a time of innovation and urgency, when all means that might serve the effort were explored, tried, discarded, or adopted. We are in a similar situation today, but we do not have that commitment to use all the necessary physical and manpower resources to get the job done.

### Human Needs

The needs we are speaking about are the basic human needs of individuals. These needs, if not adequately met, create the stresses and problems that are manifested in emotional disturbances, mental "illness," personality disorders, juvenile delinquency, and drug abuse—all of which are responses to physical, social, and psychological inadequacies. We are speaking of needs and inadequacies, not of sickness or illness.

Human service is concerned with a person's growth and development as a unique human being. We believe such service should be directed toward strengthening the individual's ability to satisfy his or her own needs and respond appropriately to the needs of others—parents, children, marriage partners, siblings, employees, friends, and colleagues. Here individual client differences are particularly vital, and the personal response of those providing the services is often the essence of what is required to encourage the desired behavior outcome. These services include mental health, special education, vocational counseling and placement, per-



sonal guidance, cultural development, rehabilitation, corrections, and other social restoration programs.

### **Human Services Worker**

The provider of this broad range of human services is the human service worker. We see this worker as a professional of a new discipline that uses the knowledge and skill of a variety of behavioral disciplines. But human services is more than the sum of these contributions. It is distinctive, and it is emerging as the new professional is emerging. It requires continuing study to determine the full nature and scope of its services. In order to provide such services, we must determine what skills, knowledge, values, and attitudes are essential; what competencies our learning experiences should seek to develop; and how we can best evaluate the validity of our educational efforts, our training efforts, and our programs. We must do this to assure that care, treatment, supportive, and preventive services are available, accessible, and adequate for meeting the needs of our people. We believe that we cannot be effective in human services unless the patient's or client's goal becomes our goal, the service agency's goal, and the community's goal. Once a goal is set, we have a commitment to support it as long as necessary.

We have seen the patient or client treated as the bearer of disease rather than as a total being with a combination of strengths and weaknesses. We have seen the client fragmented and dehumanized. Our roles as human service workers are those of generalists rather than specialists, so that we can work with total persons.

Harold McPheeters has described the generalist as "a person whose major concern is with a client or family or community and all of their problems," whereas the specialist has his or her major focus on a specialized skill or activity. This generalist helps his or her client or fam-

ily or community "to see all aspects of the problem—medical, psychological, social and economic—and to appreciate the alternatives and to follow through in whatever decision is made. To a considerable extent, the generalist is people-oriented while the specialist is procedure or pathology oriented" (Southern Regional Education Board 1969, p. 28).

As generalists, we must have broadly based knowledge, skills, and values. In a rapidly changing human service field, we must anticipate the continuing introduction of new treatment concepts and techniques and new delivery systems. A broad generalist education will permit the new professional to adapt easily to these changes.

### **Competence**

Long before "competency-based education" became a popular phrase, we stressed competence as the objective of training and education. We believe that education should prepare one for knowing and doing rather than for sterile intellectualizing. We have known and suffered the barriers imposed by credentialism and the irrelevance of educational programs in developing our professional competence. Nontraditional study offers alternatives to the rigidity of academia. We played a part in establishing the Academy of Human Service Sciences to identify the basic competencies in human services and to recognize that all relevant experiences—whether derived from life experiences, work and service experiences, or academic study—may lead to human service competencies and should be recognized by appropriate credit. The work of the Commission on Non-Traditional Study emphasizes that nontraditional designs of education have become imperative because the life patterns of modern men and women have themselves become nontraditional (Commission on Non-Traditional Study 1973).

Perhaps "nontraditional" best de-



scribes how we see our role in human services. The term recognizes the difficulty in adapting established traditional systems and institutions to the changing times. In the process there is much stress and trauma and waste of human potential. We seek for ourselves, as well as for the people we serve, the freedom to make changes in ourselves and the systems that serve us. Inscribed in the Jefferson Memorial in Washington, D.C., are these words of Thomas Jefferson: "Freedom is the right to choose, the right

to create for oneself the alternative of choice. Without this possibility of choice and the exercise of freedom, a man is not a man, but a member, an instrument, a thing." ■

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# paraprofessionals speak out: what it's all about

## Where I'm Going: A Clearer View

*Julie L. Millick*

As a paraprofessional who is still involved very heavily in the program at Colorado State University, I feel that I cannot give a final opinion and evaluation on what I have gained or lost in this position. Still, I do have some opinions that appear to be valid to me at this time, and I will share some present perceptions and ideas on what being a paraprofessional has meant to me.

My job has been to select, train, evaluate, and coordinate all the volunteers in the university counseling center at Colorado State University. This program was rather challenging in that it provided volunteers for all the outreach programs in the center and thus necessitated that I work closely not only with volunteers but also with the professionals in the center.

Perhaps the most amazing and positive aspect of my position, besides the many skills I've received, has been the opening of new doors professionally and person-

ally in my life. These doors have swung open because of the skills I have received in my paraprofessional position. With my skills in group process, training, and evaluation, I find myself in a very "marketable" position. Even at the bachelor's level, I possess skills that many agencies are willing to pay for. Furthermore, because of my skills, I am much more competitive in selection of graduate schools. My experiences as a paraprofessional have taught me not only how to increase my chances of being admitted but also just what to look for in a graduate school and how to select the program that will be most beneficial to me and best suited to my needs.

The doors that have opened in my personal life have had much impact on my self-concept. First of all, in learning and doing all the tasks my job required I began to see myself as a very competent individual. Furthermore, I was aware that professionals whom I respected saw me as competent also. Frankly, it was quite a new and exciting experience. My image of myself as a competent person and a professional increased, and I felt very confident in handling new situations and problems. I began expecting more of myself, and my goals and aspirations rose too. Perhaps most importantly,

I had confidence that I could achieve any and all of my goals. This confidence appeared not only in my professional life but also in my most personal interactions with my friends. Not only did I feel powerful as a person; I also felt much more open and trusting.

Still, with all the positive aspects of being a paraprofessional, there were negative ones too. Perhaps the biggest burden for me was all the pressure and responsibility placed on me by my job. I felt all the pressure of being a student, with all the problems and expectations that role entails, plus the pressure of being in charge of a whole program that affected people's lives in a significant way. The struggle to keep these two roles straight and meet the many expectations of each was astounding. It had a very negative effect on me, until I assigned priorities to my tasks and learned to limit my professional involvements. So, even though the pressure stemmed from the job, the beginnings of a solution came from it.

Being a paraprofessional has provided me with many skills and experiences that I would not have received otherwise. I have grown professionally, and I have experienced the pain of trying to keep my personal life in balance. It has been very easy to be dichotomized into either a professional role or a personal one. I continue to struggle to mesh those two roles or parts of me, and I believe that one day I will be able to do so. Finally, I feel I have learned a fantastic amount about myself and other people. My eyes have been opened, I have laughed and been hurt in new ways, and I have grown. Although at the present time I have no clear, whole judgment on my experience, I feel the enormity of it and the impact it has had on me. Most importantly, I am happy and pleased that I received the opportunity to be a paraprofessional and thus test my limits and feel myself soar with new and unimagined strength.

## What I Take with Me: The Interim

**Barb S. Peavey**

Looking back as a graduate student on my paraprofessional experience, I wonder if graduate school would have materialized if I hadn't worked as a paraprofessional.

I had been struggling financially to complete my undergraduate degree in business administration at Colorado State University when I applied for and received the paraprofessional position in RoadHouse, the campus crisis and information center. Even though the income from the position meant that I could continue my education full time, the money was definitely secondary to the challenge of the position. I saw the position as an opportunity for further university involvement, the chance to apply and practice academic knowledge, and the continuation of my professional aspirations. A large area of responsibility in my RoadHouse position was functioning as a liaison with campus and community agencies and insuring the smooth operation of the eighty-volunteer organization.

After spending one quarter in this position, I opted to take on the additional role of a behavior modification paraprofessional doing desensitization therapy in the university counseling center. This position gave me experience in individual and group therapy techniques. Though this proved to be a large undertaking, I felt that the combination of jobs gave me a personally rounded experience that has been invaluable in my graduate career in college student personnel administration.

On reflection, I see that the two positions were as involving as one wanted to make them. Even though the payment I received was for twelve hours of work a



week (per position), I put in considerably more time than that in order to perform as I felt I needed to. It was as if the rare opportunity for an undergraduate to work with professionals had an aura that compelled many, like myself, to put forth effort willingly and continuously. My position as an undergraduate paraprofessional was envied by graduate students, because some areas in which I worked entailed responsibilities usually undertaken by second-year graduate students.

As professionals began to rely on my competence, the scope of my job grew, and it became necessary in the behavior modification program for me to help develop volunteer programs to ease the case load. Also, the volunteers needed to be trained and supervised, thus making new responsibilities for me and other paraprofessionals. My job description in the spring looked nothing like the original one. I had terminated and begun new projects by being competent in additional areas. Because of the extra time I was committing to the job, I found myself placing it before my personal life and academic studies. In addition, the pressures of the job were intense at times. I finally learned that I had to limit my involvement with the job by assigning priorities to my projects and saying no when necessary. This was difficult, but I realized that such limitations are crucial to functioning in the professional world.

I felt I attained credibility with peers and professionals through my performance. I received recognition through reinforcement, through support, and through encouragement to make presentations at major conferences; these kinds of recognition were all-important. In my opinion, the added training in professional activities is what sets the paraprofessional apart from the typically involved student.

My entry into graduate school was in many ways facilitated by my experience as a paraprofessional. When I applied to

graduate school, I had more than an academic track record to show that I was capable of contributing to the field. I had gained confidence in myself and in my ability to help and organize others in counseling-related areas. I had held an academic-related job in my senior year, which showed that I was interested in the field. Professionals I had worked closely with were willing to recommend me for graduate school. Also, the paraprofessional position I had held helped me to define the direction of my graduate study, because I knew from experience a field that most knew only from study.

When I entered graduate school, I found that some of what I was first being taught there was a repeat of what I had previously practiced. I also found myself in a different place when it came to presenting and publishing. Now I realize how well I was equipping myself—as a paraprofessional—with new knowledge and skills for graduate school and for work in a professional center.

## The Mature Woman as Paraprofessional

Marilyn Jenks

When I entered the University of South Florida as a beginning freshman in 1971, I had no idea what would be in store for me—mature, married, and mother of four. Another student in one of my classes asked me to attend a meeting with him to explore the possibility of starting a hotline and crisis intervention service on campus as one way of dealing with the growing problem of drug abuse and drug-related crises.

This group wrote a proposal and presented it to the division of student affairs; the group was accepted as a much-needed student organization.

With administrative backing and the freedom to design and implement a student-to-student service, we began to design a program that would train students as paraprofessional telephone counselors who would be skilled in listening, giving accurate drug information, handling crisis situations, and making referrals. By the end of the summer we had a corps of trained hotline operators, and "Helpline" began delivering services at the beginning of the first quarter in September 1971.

I was then asked to be one of a group of students who would help design a training program for peer counselors. Our initial concerns were to develop a good training program and to design a complete drug intervention program that would include education, prevention, and treatment. As we worked together, we became a cohesive team, each of us bringing something different to the team. It was felt that my "life experience" and the fact that I was a mature student well above the age of most college students brought a certain maturity and stability to the team. I had already proved to myself and to others that I related well to younger students and that there were many similarities in our philosophies and life styles that served to overcome any barriers of age.

As we moved through our paraprofessional training program in communication and counseling skills, my own increased self-awareness and growth was an asset to me personally and to our program. Throughout our ongoing training program I was able to see my own natural talents emerge and, with expert professional guidance, was able to build on them. Areas of particular interest to me were suicide and crisis intervention, individual and group counseling, and assessment of student needs with program development to meet those needs; and I was allowed to help design my own training program to increase my skills along those lines. For

example, it became apparent to me that women students had some special needs that were not being met, so I designed a women's program as a component of the overall program. For this program we sought women who would enter training in family planning, problem pregnancy counseling, abortion counseling, and rape counseling. This soon expanded to include anything and everything that women students themselves felt they needed from other women.

Since we were rather pioneers in Tampa in the field of drug intervention programs, one of our roles was to train university students and then to send them out into the surrounding community to enter the job market as trained, experienced paraprofessionals. Although I was an undergraduate student, I was offered a job as a counselor in January 1974 at a community rap house in the inner-city area of Tampa because of the excellent, high-quality paraprofessional training I had received. I now work as a counselor in a day care center for addicts; it is a new, federally funded program and the first of its kind in the area.

## Black Peer Management Program

Carrie Core

One of the most rewarding and profitable experiences I have had at the University of South Florida has been my involvement with the Black Peer Management Program. The program is a very effective and much-needed one.

I feel that I have a valuable service to offer: that of helping other black students. Having experienced most, if not all, of the problems that every black student on this campus encounters, I know



that I am qualified to help these students overcome many of their problems.

It is my opinion that in order to help an individual, one must be able to relate to that individual. It is not enough to know what the problem is; one must understand the problem. I feel that we black peer managers convey the message to the students that we want to help and are not merely "doing a job." Our interests are sincere, and we are concerned. Because of the responses we have received from the students, I fully realize the potential of this program. The black peer managers have succeeded in letting the black students know that we not only understand; we also care.

## Career Education and Counseling

*Micki Potter*

Four years ago the counseling staff at Simi Valley High School in California responded to the increased emphasis on career education and the trend toward differentiated staffing by unanimously agreeing to forego their allotted half-time counselor for the ensuing school year and hire a full-time paraprofessional. The position, given the title "counseling and guidance technician," was the first of its kind in Ventura County.

Along with thirty other people, I answered the advertisement in our local newspaper, took a typing and a written test, and was interviewed by the personnel commission. After being selected as a finalist, I was interviewed by the counselors at the high school. They were looking for someone with at least two years of college and two years of work experience in a field other than education, someone who could relate to high school students

and teachers, and someone energetic and creative.

My task on the job was to establish a career information center for the students at the high school (grades 10-12). Beginning with an unused classroom and a small collection of career guidance materials from the counselors' offices, I accepted the challenge. I spent most of the first month getting oriented to school policies, assisting with registration, and learning about my responsibilities in a regional occupational program. In my spare time I read everything I could get my hands on that concerned career guidance. The center was very successful the first year, due to a strong commitment on the part of every counselor and administrator in the school. They believed in the concept of career education, and they believed in me.

I was encouraged to attend seminars and classes that dealt with career guidance. My most memorable experience was attending the California Personnel and Guidance Association Convention. I collected a suitcase full of material, perused it thoroughly, and began writing to places for more information. Our district is not wealthy, so much of the career information I collected was free. The 250 books in the school library dealing with occupations were moved to the career information center, along with the College View Deck and a cassette-filmstrip projector.

The second year was even more successful. We had written a proposal for expanding the career information center, and it was funded through the Vocational Education Act. We purchased filmstrips, interest surveys, a reader-printer, and various career materials. The center had information on over 800 careers and many college and university catalogs. Each fall a guidance survey is conducted to determine the vocational interests of the 2,000 students who attend the school. I invite speakers from various occupations to come to the



center once a week for small group presentations. From these presentations the students gain true insight into careers from people in their own community.

This past year has seen many physical changes in the center: We have moved to a larger room, the work experience office has become an integral part of the center, and there are plans for more remodeling. The center is open for the students before and after school, during lunch, and during the school day. Teachers may bring their classes to the center to research careers that apply to the subject matter being taught.

I love my work! I wanted a rewarding job, and I found it. The students are very appreciative and responsive to me and to the information available to them. I enjoy sharing my experiences with young people and listening to their thoughts and plans for the future. Each day is a new challenge and a new learning experience. I believe the type of work I do is necessary in today's society. It is important for young people to have more guidance for their future and to achieve happiness and a sense of self-worth from a chosen career.

## A Volunteer's View

Carey Donovan

The volunteer program at Jefferson County Mental Health Center in Colorado is a great program for people who might want to go on for degrees and paying jobs in the social service area, because it gives the volunteers skills and experience—and that is what is most important to have. At the same time, the types of things we learn are relevant to daily living—at home, at work, wherever. And the things we do in the center are fun and rewarding in themselves.

Most volunteers want to do something

useful. That is what is reinforcing—not the traditional gold pins or yearly luncheons. In this program we are not only given something to do; we are trained to do something real, and we are offered college credit. More than that, professional trainers and the rest of the team give us support and encourage us to be creative, to develop our own programs, to grow, and to take on responsibility. When someone believes that we can do something, then we start believing it ourselves and coming up with still more ideas. It's exciting to learn something and then have a chance to put it to use right away.

## A Peer Help Center

Rick Corrigan

I recently graduated from Carnegie-Mellon University in Pennsylvania with a BA in English. For the past year and a half I have been a staff member of the Peer Help Center, a student counseling organization at Carnegie-Mellon. My activities in the center have constituted so large a part of my life that my reactions to it are as varied as my moods. In general, however, my response to my involvement in the center is positive—with some reservations.

One aspect of the center that has left a deep impression on me is the client-centered therapy developed by Carl Rogers, which we use in counseling. Its goal is relatively simple: to provide clients with the accepting atmosphere necessary to enable them to begin exploring their problems more deeply and come to their own tension-free decisions. As a therapy method, it has, I believe, significant limitations. As a general rule of thumb for dealing with others, however, I have found that its methods help to foster understanding: I am now far

less willing than ever before to impose my interpretations on another's actions or to expect another to fill my prescriptions for behavior. As a correlative, I am more willing to accept responsibility for my own actions and feelings and to accept and work through my own problems.

Another way in which involvement in the center has enhanced my personal understanding is through my interactions with other staff members. While I've been on staff, I've made many close friends, and I've grown through such scheduled activities as group encounter sessions and informal gatherings of the staff.

My work in the office includes counseling, providing information and referrals, and helping in drug related and other crises, and I have had good and bad experiences in this work. I have often been bored and discouraged by spending long hours in the counseling office without seeing a client. After such an evening I sometimes begin to wonder whether the center serves a useful purpose. In addition, I often question the effectiveness of my role in counseling situations. Although I realize that it takes time for a troubled student to work out a problem, I sometimes can't help but feel bad when a client doesn't feel appreciably better after a session, and I often wonder over things I might have said or thought I might have had that could have helped a client. But there are really good moments too, when I can put a caller at ease by giving him or her a wealth of referrals to people who can help get rights from a landlord, when a client says that it is nice to have a place to talk, even when someone comes in looking for a match and ends up just talking for an hour.

On the whole, my feelings about the Peer Help Center are positive ones. It has helped me to grow in many important ways, and I feel that the center plays a significant role at Carnegie-Mellon. I

do have doubts about the effectiveness of the counseling that the center has to offer; I often feel that we as counselors are not sufficiently knowledgeable to help bring about lasting change, help effect real growth in a client. But I have many of the same doubts about the effectiveness of professional counselors and psychologists, and the center has qualities other than expertise in therapy to recommend it: It has a fine and continually expanding referral service, a prevailing atmosphere of accessibility in which a client can feel free to explore problems and thus find relief, and an involved and conscientious staff of volunteers.

## High School Peer Counseling

*Dawn Kramer*

My experience as a second year peer group counselor at Round Lake High School in Illinois is very fulfilling. At first, when I was in the training program, I didn't really know what it was about, and I didn't know if I would like it. Now I think I know pretty well what it is about. I think peer counseling is people helping each other adjust to things and helping solve each others' problems.

Most fulfilling is getting the group started and trusting each other with problems. Trust is really a big word and, I feel, is most important. The thing is not to be just a leader but to be one of the group as well and to do everything that everyone else does. But most important is to be yourself.

Peer group counseling has brought all the cliques in my school together, and this is one of its most significant results for me. It has helped me meet new and interesting people from my school—teachers, students, and the peer counseling staff.

# The Paraprofessional as Trainer

Maria Portalatin

I became a paraprofessional, in the capacity of educational assistant, in the New York City schools in January 1968. I was fortunate enough to be one of the fifty paraprofessionals in New York City to be accepted to attend college under the Human Resources Administration Program. After I was in this program for one year, the program was dropped. This frightened all fifty of us in the program, because it meant that we would be unable to attend college. It seemed as though we had just put our foot in the door when someone turned and shut the door right in our faces.

It was during this crisis that the United Federation of Teachers became our representative and negotiated, for paraprofessionals, a Career Ladder Program that we think is the best in the country. There are approximately 15,000 paraprofessionals in New York City; 13,000 are members of the UFT and are attending college under the Career Ladder Program. Approximately 400 paraprofessionals have obtained their teaching degrees and are now teaching in the city school system.

I am now an auxiliary trainer, the highest step for a paraprofessional in the program. My main function is to assist in the inservice training of other paraprofessionals. As a member of the training team, my principal function is to continue direct training of paraprofessionals. This involves keeping a comprehensive calendar of regularly scheduled inservice sessions, by grade level, for the entire school year. We try to meet the training needs of the paraprofessionals. For example, we found that there was a great need for the paraprofessionals to have a knowledge of Spanish to enable them to relate to the Spanish-speaking

child, so we instituted a basic Spanish course.

Training is given in the areas of role development and growth. It involves small group discussions, role play, role simulation, and sensitivity sessions, all with an emphasis in human relations. Specialists in the areas of guidance, math, reading, early childhood, social studies, music, art, and health education are invited to training sessions, where they demonstrate techniques for practical application of their specialties. Workshops are conducted to give paraprofessionals opportunities to work on materials that they take back to their work situations and share with professionals.

We also coordinate and develop all administrative forms necessary for the smooth and proper functioning of the overall program. We act as resource people for all paraprofessionals and act as a liaison among the district staff, teachers, school administrators, supervisory personnel, city colleges, other paraprofessionals, and the Auxiliary Educational Career Unit of the New York City Board of Education.

The paraprofessionals functioning as teacher aides, educational assistants and educational associates provide a variety of educational services to children in about 100 different programs throughout the city. They are employed in such programs as Strengthening Early Childhood (prekindergarten to second grade), Project Read, math labs, and so on.

A professional-paraprofessional team approach is used in many programs. This approach in education requires cooperation, sensitivity, leadership, flexibility, and commitment on the part of team members. The success or failure of the team depends on the extent to which school administrators accept and implement the concept of flexible roles. In some instances the team approach has been very successful, but there is still much more that can be done.



# New Roles for New Professionals

William Lynch, Jr.

Three years ago, as a "new professional," I helped organize some 400 new professionals (paraprofessionals), on a nationwide scale, into a new section of the American Public Health Association that is now called the New Professional Section. We were greeted enthusiastically by the APHA, as the organization was very anxious to bring into its fold the thousands upon thousands of community workers who had come into being out of the OEO Neighborhood Health Centers and the family planning programs of the sixties.

The new professionals wanted to become part of a powerful national organization that would help them to obtain appropriate training and education and perhaps job security, particularly at a time of crisis when federal jobs were being cut back and the OEO was being dismantled.

What does the future hold for us? It seems clear to me that there will be a national health insurance program in the near future, and it seems equally clear that health costs will continue to skyrocket, particularly physician and hospital costs. There is therefore a need for a sharp reorganization of our health system, a reorganization that is attuned to the major health problems of an advanced society. These problems have to do with prevention and education, with chronic illnesses (heart disorders, cancer, hypertension, diabetes, mental illness), and behavior-related disorders (smoking, overeating, underexercising).

If this assumption is correct, it would seem that the use of physicians should be

much more limited and that there should be much greater use of paraprofessionals in many spheres—educating and organizing the community, helping patients with chronic disorders, involving consumers in programs of exercise, diet control, nonsmoking, and so on. New professionals could play a major role in organizing self-help groups in the community to deal with these behavior-related problems, and they could thus be a key element in a reorganized health system.

If paraprofessionals are to play this important new role, they will, of course, have to get themselves together. They will have to be well organized in both the APHA and the unions to insure that the education and training they have received is properly accredited and utilized—and also to insure that the health service is appropriately restructured so that it really serves the consumer. There is a great need for the paraprofessional to unite with the consumer and the consumer movement, which has been advancing considerably in the health field.

One last but very important issue: With health likely to be a major growth industry of the seventies, and with the great need for the kind of paraprofessional personnel described above, there is no question that many different kinds of workers will enter the health system—from veterans and middle-class women to school dropouts. The great danger is that the community paraprofessional, who has come into the system from the neighborhood of the poor, may be screened out or placed in extremely limited roles. This would be a most unfortunate happening, one that must be guarded against from the very beginning by the community workers themselves and their allies in the professional associations, the labor movement, and the consumer movement. ■



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# summing up





# paraprofessionals as guerrillas: recommendations for system change

During the sixties, the term *paraprofessional* became a familiar one to human service professionals and to the public as well. The war on poverty, New Careers programs, the rapid growth of one- and two-year training programs in human services, among other developments, provided opportunity and training for those without advanced professional training.

Then came the seventies. Where are the paraprofessionals now, and how are they doing? Research cited in this issue does indeed support the effectiveness of these workers in a variety of settings. They have offered a real service; and mental patients, students, parolees, alcoholics, and others have benefited from their employment. Training programs have continued to grow, and two states (Maryland and Illinois) have actually implemented career ladders and lattices that provide opportunities for growth and advancement. A substantial number of persons have attained AA, BA, and in some cases graduate degrees while employed in paraprofessional positions.

But the retrenchment in human services has predictably hit the most vulnerable worker group: the paraprofessionals. The virtual closing down of the war on poverty has ended employment for untold numbers. Other agencies have suffered cutbacks as well. As one example, mental health technicians in several states are losing jobs as a result of the closing of in-patient hospitals. And few

## Ursula Delworth

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new positions are available. A significant number of paraprofessionals are employed on grants with tenuous, year-to-year funding. The roster of former paraprofessionals who gain professional positions is small indeed, and those who do are pointed out as examples of what *can* happen—but generally doesn't. So effective service to the consumer hasn't done much for the paraprofessional. If the paraprofessional still has a position, it is likely to be a locked-in, dead-end, low-paying job with little hope for advancement or personal reward.

Beyond the personal disillusionment of the paraprofessional, little has come of the promise that paraprofessionals would create a real change in the delivery of human services, especially for minorities, the poor, and women. Many agencies remain as racist, sexist, and elitist as though paraprofessionals had never been involved in their operation. How could so many have had such a limited impact on the agencies in which they worked? What happened?

It is important that we understand clearly what happened in order that we can make the changes necessary to allow paraprofessionals their full potential as helpers and social change agents. On the basis of this knowledge we can make recommendations about what needs to be implemented in order for this human power potential to be fully utilized.

#### **WHERE WE'VE FAILED**

First, we have failed to train paraprofessionals systematically to meet the demands of their new positions effectively. Alinsky (1972) has discussed this point in terms of the failure of professionals to arm ghetto leaders with the necessary tactics and methods for system change, and Pearl (1973) has made a similar point in discussing the failure of the peace movement to make a significant impact. The poor, minorities, students, women—and all the paraprofessionals

with whom we have worked—bring with them many talents, ideas, and abilities. They also lack certain abilities, as Riessman (1967) has pointed out. Professionals have tended to ignore these lacks, especially those related to system entry and change, and have rarely helped paraprofessionals develop the organization and tactics appropriate to changing services and making inroads into bureaucracies.

Second, and even more important, agency personnel have often tended to "cool out" potential change agents. Professionals have chosen to put roadblocks in the way of significant and meaningful change by using organizational structures and terminology with which the paraprofessional is rarely familiar.

Related to this is the relative lack of peer support provided to paraprofessionals as they enter the new system. Isolated from their reference group, relatively untrained, and placed in a new situation for which little in their background has prepared them, the new paraprofessionals have often had little choice but to accept things "as is." They may well become effective helpers in the current style of the organization, but the new vision of more viable services and methods is often cut off before it has a chance even to be heard.

Even some New Careers proponents assumed that paraprofessionals would become "guerrillas" in the agencies that employed them, changing systems and services to more human and effective ones. Such a view ignores the fact that effective guerrillas are carefully trained and supported in their work. No such advantages have become consistently supplied to the new human services workers.

#### **WHAT WE NEED TO DO**

In order for the paraprofessional to have an influence on service, certain elements must be present.

First, *selection must be geared toward the identification of "natural" leaders and helpers*, those who already have achieved some ability to work with others.

Second, *training must work for the actual development of these persons* so that they can be recognized as leaders in a wider sphere (Alinsky 1972). Specific skills or modalities for service have to be taught; but beyond this, paraprofessionals must have access to "system entry" skills. They have to be helped to identify power and support sources in the system, and they have to learn how to best utilize them. Instead of "locking out" the paraprofessional by using professional terminology, a common language that communicates to professionals, paraprofessionals, and service recipients alike has to be developed and consistently used.

Third, *involvement in all components of the agency must be encouraged*. Paraprofessionals cannot be locked into one narrow service modality. They must be involved in day-to-day operations of the agency and in decision making regarding resource allocation and services. Again, this means ongoing training in the purposes, goals, and overall delivery plan of the agency.

Fourth, *job descriptions must tend toward a developmental model*. That is, the needs and problems of the service recipient must be looked at and a rationale decided on for grouping these functions into jobs and assigning them to various levels of workers. The alternative (and widely used) model is the job factoring approach, which factors existing professional tasks into components and assigns certain jobs to different levels of workers. Usually the pieces assigned to the newly created job are the most tiresome and least challenging—and may be those least likely to utilize the skills of the paraprofessional and meet the need of the consumer.

Fifth, *community among paraprofessionals must be built* in order to provide a sounding board and support system as para-

professionals grapple with their new positions and, possibly, new life styles. Riessman (1967) has called the paraprofessional the "new marginal man." Paraprofessionals are entering a new field in which, being neither a professional nor a service recipient, they wonder just who they are and what is to be accomplished by their presence in an agency. Sincere and sensitive professionals can provide some of the necessary support, but professionals can probably help most by fostering opportunities for the development of a vital "community of peers" among paraprofessionals. A peer community is facilitated by structuring tasks on which paraprofessionals can work in common, asking the paraprofessional group to be responsible for making specific meaningful decisions, and setting aside an area in which paraprofessionals can work together and also get to know each other better. Of course, this also assumes the employment of more than one paraprofessional in an agency.

None of these five elements, necessary though they are, have any chance of providing the desired outcome unless two additional conditions are met. The first is that the agency must provide genuine options for the advancement and education of its paraprofessionals. System change does not come from those who do not identify their own future with the agency and its services. Slaves are not creators—except of revolution.

Second, the professional staff and agency administration must be ready and willing to work as partners with paraprofessionals in providing more effective delivery systems. This condition must have two components in order for it to work. First, the professional staff must have the necessary skills and abilities to move in new directions as paraprofessionals take over some of the tasks formerly performed by professionals. Second, administrators must support and reward the new shifts in



staffing patterns as well. Threatened professionals who are unsure of their own skills or who feel that new directions will not be valued are unlikely to reinforce the skill attainment and creative ideas of paraprofessionals. Retraining and new organizational and reward structures for professionals and paraprofessionals will be necessary in many agencies before professionals can feel free to "let in" their co-workers.

#### **LIMITED WE STAND**

Paraprofessionals have tended to see the need for these new directions long before professionals and have responded by trying to "get themselves together" in New Career and other peer groups. The current question about what to call these new workers in human services perhaps best exemplifies where they are going and how professionals can work with them. We have termed them "para-

professionals," "nonprofessionals," and "subprofessionals." They are calling themselves "new professionals," "human service workers," and similar nonde-meaning terms. If we, as "old professionals," believe in our own competencies, then we should be able and willing to share and teach what we can, to learn what we don't yet know, and to join with our new co-workers in building the type of mental health, educational, and other human service institutions our society so desperately needs. The role of guerrilla is open to us all. ■

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Working on the preparation of this issue (left to right): Carole Francis, Staff Secretary at WICHE; L'roula Delworth; LuAnne Alepp, Staff Associate at WICHE.

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3. Leave generous margins (at least an inch all around) on each page.
4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.
5. Place references, each table, and each figure on pages separate from the text.
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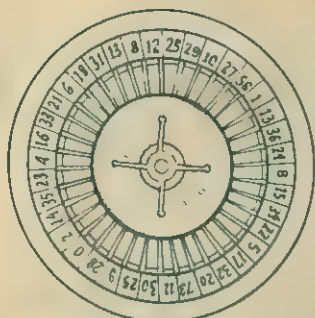
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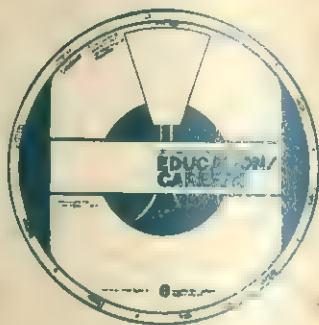
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# The Personnel and Guidance Journal

volume 53

number 5

january 1975

## **In This Issue:**

*counseling Puerto Ricans  
... the counselor and the  
armed forces ... facilitating  
growth through gestalt ...  
consulting with faculty*

## **In the Field:**

*a new system for preparing  
counselors ... promoting  
guidance through the media*



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**Manuscripts:** Submit manuscripts to the Editor according to the guidelines that appear in every issue of the JOURNAL.

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**Reprints:** Available in lots of 50 from Publications Sales, APGA. **Back issues:** \$2.00 per single copy for current volume and four volumes immediately preceding from Publications Sales, APGA. **Single issues of earlier volumes:** Available from Walter J. Johnson, Inc., 111 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10003. **Bound volumes:** Available from Publications Sales, APGA. **Microfilm:** University Microfilms, Inc., 315 North First Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48107.

**Indexing:** The JOURNAL's annual index is published in the June issue. The JOURNAL is listed in *Education Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *College Student Personnel Abstracts*, *Sociology of Education Abstracts*, *Personnel Literature*, *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, *Mental Health Book Review Index*, *Poverty and Human Resources*, *Exceptional Child Education Abstracts*, and *Employment Relations Abstracts*. Book reviews are indexed in *Book Review Index*.

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Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered. U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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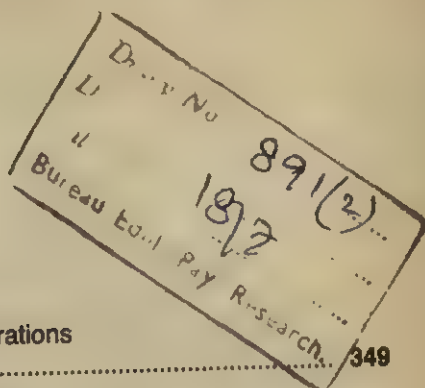
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# The Personnel and Guidance Journal®

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Volume 53, Number 5, January 1975



## ARTICLES

|                                                                                                 |     |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Counseling Puerto Ricans: Some Cultural Considerations<br><i>Edward W. Christensen</i> .....    | 349 |
| The Counselor and Armed Forces Recruitment<br><i>Michael D. Lewis, Phyllis Warren</i> .....     | 357 |
| A Gestalt Point of View on Facilitating Growth in Counseling<br><i>Robert L. Harman</i> .....   | 363 |
| Consulting with Faculty: Necessary and Possible<br><i>David A. Kopplin, Louis C. Rice</i> ..... | 367 |

## IN THE FIELD

|                                                                                          |     |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| An Open-Entry/Open-Exit System for Preparing Counselors<br><i>Edward F. Fuller</i> ..... | 374 |
| Guidance Public Relations via Radio and Newspaper<br><i>Richard G. Aanonsen</i> .....    | 378 |

## FACTS ABOUT APGA

|                                       |     |
|---------------------------------------|-----|
| Activities of the Association .....   | 402 |
| APGA Board of Directors 1974-75 ..... | 403 |

## POEMS

|                                               |     |
|-----------------------------------------------|-----|
| Reaching Out<br><i>Ronald H. Nelson</i> ..... | 362 |
| Page 118<br><i>Barbara L. Johnk</i> .....     | 373 |

## DEPARTMENTS

|                              |     |
|------------------------------|-----|
| Feedback .....               | 344 |
| Editorial .....              | 348 |
| Research in Counseling ..... | 382 |
| Etcetera .....               | 388 |
| Book Reviews .....           | 392 |
| Guidelines for Authors ..... | 404 |

# DRUG

## Drugs and the School Counselor.

1972. By Robert M. Casse, Jr., Marilee K. Scaff and William T. Packwood. What are the issues involved in counseling the drug user? What are the implications for counselors of state and federal statutes on drug abuse? How can counselors aid in developing enlightened policies on drug use within their school systems as well as facilitating drug education programs in their communities? These and other questions are explored in this concise text which defines the responsibilities of counselors to their counselees and community. Case study, drug-abuse guides, counseling strategies. 148 pp. To APGA members \$4; to non-members \$5. (order #050)

## The Counselor and the Law

1974. The counselor today finds that he or she faces a heart-rending dilemma. In an increasingly fast-paced and chaotic age the counselor is needed by more people for an increasing number of reasons. And the counselor faces an ever-present danger of liability for harm done to a counselee because of the unique relationship between the two. It is obvious that the counselor cannot perform effectively while the law is a threat.

This book examines the law as it relates to counseling. Whether the problem is possible malpractice relating to birth control, abortion, drugs or illegal search; whether the issue involves confidentiality, civil disobedience, libel, testing or outright criminality, counselors can finally refer to a text written by lawyers who understand counseling. All those in the helping professions who are in doubt about the law as it relates to them should own this book. In Press (order #005)



**Help** uses the cinema vente technique to demonstrate how one telephone crisis intervention center is operated. Fast moving scenes include interviews with "street people" manning the telephones and their experiences with callers . . . a brief discussion with the founders of the Help facility who describe how they began this community service . . . young people on trips, arguing with parents and taking pills. The stories are cameoed and the viewer often sees only the anguish of the individual on the phone, listening to the problems of the caller. But mainly, the viewer gets the impression that many young people are in trouble and cannot turn to anyone except their peers or those practically trained in drug abuse, like the volunteers at Help. 26 minutes. 16mm color and sound. Sale price \$265; rental fee per day of use \$25. (order #H10)

Although **Help** can stand by itself as both a documentary and a model for those desiring to establish a similar service in their communities, it is suggested that other components be used with the film to provide a broader outlook on the types of counseling programs being conducted in this critical area.



# PACKAGE

**Training Volunteers for Telephone Crises Intervention** with Jane Duckworth (Ball State Univ.), Donald E. Hendrickson (Ball State Univ.), Jeri Horn (Meramec Psychiatric Center—Yorktown, In.) and Peter Mitchell (Ball State Univ.). 1 hour and 15 minutes. \$5 (order #434)

**Counseling the Alcoholic** with Thomas B. Dobson, Baptist Rescue Mission, New Orleans. 1 hour and 15 minutes. Members \$7, 3/\$20. Non-members \$8, 3/\$23. (order #114) New Orleans Convention Tape.

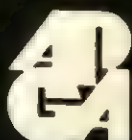
**Development of a Community Drug Abuse Program for Parent-Consultant** with Stephen A. Rollin (Florida State Univ.) and Norma B. Gluckstein (Univ. of Massachusetts). 1 hour and 15 minutes. \$5. (order #348)

**The Role and Resources of the Family in the Drug Rehabilitation Process** with Arthur Dell Orto, Boston University. 1 hour and 45 minutes. Members \$7, 3/\$20. Non-members \$8, 3/\$23. (order #167) New Orleans Convention Tape.

**Guidance and the New Mysticism: Drugs, Bio-Feedback, Zen, Astrology** with Robert B. Nordberg (Marquette Univ.—WI). 1 hour and 15 minutes. \$5 (order #505)

The first cassette program, **Drug Abuse Prevention: Counseling for Involvement in Living**, features the work of Richard W. Warner and John D. Swisher of Pennsylvania State University with youngsters in school settings. Their approach, which is vividly demonstrated in taped excerpts of counseling sessions, is expressed by Dr. Swisher: "Our definition of prevention is that we want to equip young people with the knowledge, the attitudes and the alternatives to experiencing life prior to a drug decision rather than waiting until someone is involved with drugs and then trying to do something either in a crisis intervention mode or in a treatment sense." Students are heard discussing why they took drugs and why, through group interaction, they chose positive alternatives to the drug scene. 50 minutes. \$5 (order #083)

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# Feedback

*Letters for Feedback should be under 300 words. Those selected for publication may be edited or abridged by the Journal staff.*

## Correcting the Cyprus Report

Thank you for the copy of the September 1974 issue of the JOURNAL, where appropriate excerpts of my paper on "The High School Counselor in Cyprus and the United States" were included. I noticed, however, that the following paragraph of my introduction was excluded:

"Cypriot population, approximately 700,000, consists of 80% Greeks and 18% Turks. The Turks are now living in somewhat separate neighborhoods and villages distributed throughout the island. They have their own schools as they always had in the past. Thus I shall limit myself to speaking about the Greeks and their schools."

This paragraph is basic, because without it the reader may think that I am also writing about the society, schools, counselors, and students of the Turkish Cypriot minority. I didn't write about all these, because data were not available.

In addition to this, on page 49 the rephrasing of a sentence shows American counselors working according to a more problem-solving oriented theory, whereas it should show that Cypriot counselors do so, as it can be derived from the previous sentences.

Being a refugee now in Limassol, it might be considered a luxury for me to deal with such corrections. I consider it, however, my duty to make them.

DEMETRIOS LEVENTIS  
Limassol, Cyprus

## Women Returning to School: Encouragement

It is reassuring to read about the continuing concern for "The Needs of Women Returning to School" in the September 1974 issue of P&G. My professional career as a counselor began in 1964, with the prime focus on women returning to school or the labor market. I served as the first counselor to women in a pilot project of the National YWCA titled "Vistas For Women" and held in White

Plains, N.Y. During the four and one-half years I worked in the program, we administered individual and group counseling; interest and aptitude testing and evaluation; educational and career forums; and follow-up studies.

From Brandenburg's report of the WING program, I observe that for the past decade the psychological needs of women returning to school have remained unchanged—even with the impact of the women's liberation movement. The economic needs of women, however, have become greatly exacerbated. Many husbands are now encouraging their wives to develop career skills to lighten family financial burdens.

As a career counselor in the office of Career Counseling and Placement at Hunter College, CUNY, for the past seven years, I have observed that husbands are becoming more supportive and feeling less threatened by the prospect of a college-educated wife. This is especially true where the wife is perceived as a possible helpmate in sharing the increasing cost of living expenses. I have seen career opportunities for college-educated women open in such areas as accounting, banking, business administration, public administration, health administration, sales management, medicine, law, engineering, and government service. This is a very encouraging trend. Hopefully, an improved national economy will enable it to continue.

SELMA E. DIAMOND  
Hunter College, CUNY  
New York, N.Y.

## NCGC and Beyond

The National Catholic Guidance Conference was granted divisional status in APGA in the fullness of time. When morality and ethics were being abused and abrogated at the highest level of leadership in our American system, a consortium of professional helpers



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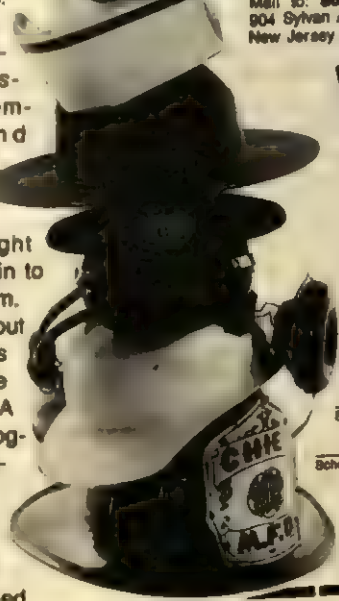
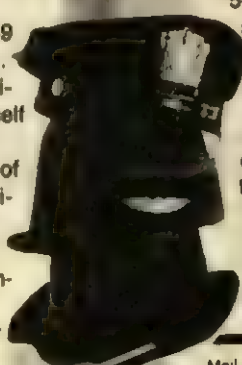
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dedicated to the furtherance of religious, moral, ethical, and philosophical concerns and values achieved bona fide entry into APGA. This rather melodramatic event should be applauded as a boon to the counseling profession. The place of values in counseling has been either ignored or snubbed far too long. Hopefully, the publics served by the membership of APGA and the members themselves will perceive that NCGC's presence in APGA indicates the association's appreciation for the importance of values in helping relationships.

However laudable might be the status of NCGC as a division of APGA, this is only a good beginning. If the cause of values is to be served well by APGA, there must be a larger, nonparochial umbrella to accommodate the interests of Jews, Protestants, and other groups represented in the association. The number of APGA members who have a genuine interest in values is, without question, very much larger than the current NCGC membership. The division will fail to attract these other interested persons (present and future) until the label and the leadership are less parochial or denominational. The National Association for the Advancement of Values could be a suitable title for the division when it has been reframed to provide for the diverse value orientations observed among the constituents of APGA.

The idea presented here represents what might be called a "philosophical or axiological ecumenism." I submit that a division based on a truly ecumenical axiology will prove to be highly attractive and thoroughly valuable to a large number of APGA members; otherwise it shall remain an insular enclave harboring, in the main, the interests of devotees of a major religious denomination.

DARRELL SMITH  
State University College  
Oneonta, New York

### A Vote for Quality

I'd like to respond to your June 1974 editorial, "It's Time for Quality." You questioned whether you might not be out of step with much of the counseling field, a field "which seems to be committed more to quantity than quality." Your question can probably be answered in the affirmative—unfortunately. I too feel estranged when I listen to profes-

sionals play the old "numbers game," trying to justify their own existence on the basis of client-counselor ratios or on the scads of reports and forms which they fill out in a week's work. When they do that kind of thing—as they frequently do—they seem to be dodging the real issue, which is, of course, the quality of services rendered.

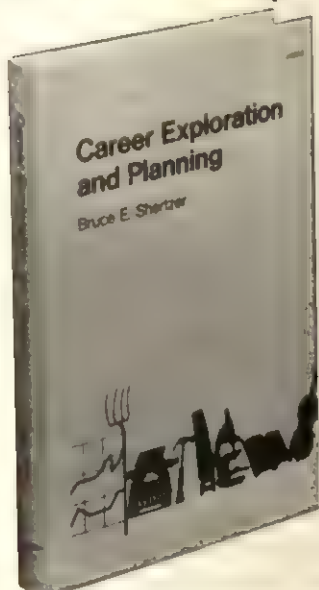
I can think of several guidance staffs who have exquisitely low client-counselor ratios and who complete all of their paperwork on time and in beautiful order and who still do not do very much *real* counseling or helping. On the other hand, I can think of several guidance staffs with woefully high client-counselor ratios who still manage to serve their clientele magnificently, chiefly because they put people before paperwork.

Counselor education programs have been just as guilty, continuing to crank out hordes of new counselors rather than directing their energies and resources to improving the quality of their programs and, even more, reaching out to practicing counselors via workshops, skill-building sessions, etc., to enhance the quality of guidance and counseling services delivered by the practitioners. The result has been that an increasing number of recent graduates of counselor education programs are unable to find employment in their chosen field, while "old-timers" become even more entrenched and sometimes encrusted in their positions. So the profession, which desperately needs new blood, suffers all the more from lack of same.

It is time for the counseling profession to pursue an almost entirely new direction, basically that of striving for (as you so accurately denoted) *quality* of services and personnel—and foregoing (at least for a while) its obsession with *quantity* of services and personnel. The American public is understandably wary of purchasing more of a relatively unproven product, especially in a tight economy; yet counselors and counselor educators continue to bark up the same old tree, asking for more money, more facilities, more counselors. It's enough to make one wonder where all of that much-acclaimed counselor sensitivity, awareness, and perceptivity are. Let's wake up before it's too late!

LEWIS B. MORGAN  
Villanova University  
Villanova, Pennsylvania

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# Editorial

## FOR WHOM DOES THE JOURNAL SPEAK?

From time to time somebody says or writes something like, "The kind of material you've been publishing lately shows that APGA is going in the (right) (wrong) direction." I'm bothered by that and would like to say what I believe to be the "voice" of this journal—and others like it.

To start with the conclusion: P&G does not "speak for APGA" and does not "represent the thinking of APGA." In fact, I would be hard put to say what *is* the thinking of APGA. After all, APGA can mean its members as a whole, its senate, its board of directors, its divisions, or its many committees and commissions. So there are many voices and many aspects to the thinking of APGA.

For whom, then, does P&G speak? Look for a moment at our origins. The APGA Board of Directors selects the P&G editor every three years. (In the case of the divisional journals, it is the division's governing body that typically does the selecting.) Presumably the Board members choose someone in whom they have confidence, but they may not know much about the person's beliefs, priorities, or tastes in writing. (They find out pretty soon, sometimes to their surprise, and occasionally to their regret!)

In our case—as in the case of at least some other journals—the editor plays a major role in designating the new members who rotate onto the editorial board each year. All candidates to be considered for the P&G Editorial Board must be approved by the APGA Board of Directors. But the editor is given the major responsibility for preparing a list of nominees in the first place and for selecting finally the new members from the list that has been approved by the APGA Board of Directors.

As a result of this process, the editorial policies and practices of this journal at any one time reflect mostly the opinions and judgments of the current editor and editorial board as to what kinds of material are important and will be meaningful, interesting, and useful to our members and subscribers. When we guess right, fine. When we guess wrong, you know exactly whom to blame.

In a way, it may seem as though too much autonomy is being given to a small group of people. Like everybody else, I sometimes disagree strongly with the editorial policies of one or another journal. But in the long run, I believe that this kind of arrangement is a reasonably good one. You pick the people you think can do the job and let them do it. If you don't like what they've done, yell at them while they are in office, and replace them when their terms run out. Isn't that pretty good accountability? ■ LG



# counseling puerto ricans: some cultural considerations

EDWARD W. CHRISTENSEN

Edward W. Christensen is Associate Professor of Education in the Department of Counseling and Personnel Services in the State University of New York at Albany. From 1962 to 1973 he worked in the University of Puerto Rico's Counselor Education Program, serving as the program's director for five years. During that period he was active in many counseling and consulting roles and was president of the Puerto Rico Personnel and Guidance Association.

*Puerto Ricans comprise a significant percentage of potential clients for many counselors. The migration of Puerto Ricans to the mainland over the years has created cultural differences between Puerto Ricans raised in Puerto Rico and those raised in the U.S., but both groups are at a disadvantage in the dominant American culture. Migration back to the island in recent years is creating some problems for Puerto Rico, so Puerto Ricans often find prejudice both here and there. In this article the author, who married into a Puerto Rican family, discusses some values and traits that characterize Puerto Ricans and the behaviors that emerge from these traits. He offers practical suggestions for those counselors who have Puerto Rican clients.*

In recent years the educational world has become increasingly concerned with students whose cultural backgrounds are different from those of the dominant culture in the U.S. This concern, though belated and still insufficient, has prompted other helping professions to follow the lead. Thus there has recently been increased publication on counseling members of minority groups, writers advocating giving more attention to the needs of clients who are culturally and ethnically different.

One of the outcomes of the increased attention given minority groups has been a tendency on the part of many to lump all minority individuals together. Thus, although early legislation and educational endeavors were designed to help blacks, American Indians, Mexican-Americans, and Puerto Ricans, they often served only to identify them all as having the same needs and disadvantages. Each group has protested this treatment, and all have insisted that their uniqueness be recognized and preserved. This need to understand the uniqueness of clients from specific cul-

tural and ethnic backgrounds motivated the preparation of this article about counseling Puerto Ricans.

### **SOME FACTS ABOUT PUERTO RICO**

There is a great deal of ignorance among mainland Americans with regard to Puerto Rico. A few years ago, when I was in the U.S. on sabbatical leave from the University of Puerto Rico, I brought my automobile, which had Puerto Rican license plates. A number of people asked if the car had been driven from Puerto Rico! Other typical questions reveal a lack of knowledge concerning this significant group in our society. Mainland Americans have asked: "Aren't all Puerto Ricans dark-skinned?" "Does one need a passport to go there?" "You won't serve me that hot and spicy food, will you?"

Puerto Rico is an island in the Caribbean, about 1,050 miles from Miami and 1,650 miles from New York. The island is about 35 miles by 100 miles and has a population of over 2.8 million. Its population density is greater than that of China, Japan, or India. Puerto Ricans are all American citizens, proclaimed so by the Jones Act of 1917. The population is a mixture of Taino Indians, Africans, and Spaniards, although the Indian influence is much more cultural than biological, as conflicts with the Spaniards practically decimated that group. Skin colors range from as white as any Scandinavian to as black as the darkest African, with all shades and mixtures in between.

It is impossible in this article to clear up all the myths and misunderstandings about Puerto Rico and Puerto Ricans. Indeed, there is currently much study, debate, and conflict regarding many issues of Puerto Rico's culture, identity, and political future. (Readers will find relevant material cited in the list of suggested readings at the end of this article.) These larger issues will not be easily resolved, but the present reality

concerning Puerto Ricans is crucial for today's educators and counselors. In order to perform in a helpful and ethical way in assisting clients to grow and make viable decisions, a counselor must recognize personal prejudices and erroneous assumptions.

The problem of understanding Puerto Ricans is confounded by the fact that today there are really two groups of Puerto Ricans. From a crowded island not overly endowed with natural resources beyond its people and its climate, thousands of Puerto Ricans have come to the mainland, especially in the period since World War II. Many have stayed. Scarcely a state is without any Puerto Ricans, and some places, such as New York City, Boston, Hartford (Connecticut), and several areas in New Jersey, have large numbers of Puerto Ricans. Many have raised families on the mainland, and these second- and third-generation Puerto Ricans are different in many significant ways from those who were raised on the island.

The mainland-raised Puerto Rican, sometimes called Neo-Rican, is generally English-dominant with respect to language. This Puerto Rican has adapted, as one might expect, to the unique environment of the urban setting but has retained a strong influence from and linkage to a primarily Latin American setting. Thus, having been brought up in another climate, with another language, with different fears and aspirations, and perhaps often with a different reference group, the mainland Puerto Rican is understandably different from the island Puerto Rican. Yet the culturally dominant group in the U.S. defines all Puerto Ricans in the same way, and the Neo-Rican often suffers from the same prejudices inflicted on the recent arrival from San Juan, Ponce, or Ciales.

In many ways, however, Puerto Ricans from the mainland and those from the island do share common cultural characteristics. As dangerous as generalizations

can be, it is important for counselors to consider some of the qualities a Puerto Rican client might possess.

### CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

There are certain values and traits that are generally agreed on as being linked to the Puerto Rican ethos. Chief among these are *fatalismo*, *respeto*, *dignidad*, *machismo*, and *humanismo* (Hidalgo undated; Wagenheim 1970). Wells (1972) has added *afecto* to this list. (See the glossary at the end of this article for definitions of Spanish words used.) These cultural attributes are important to any group, and a wise counselor should have some understanding of them. The reader who has difficulty conceptualizing these terms may find it helpful to empathize with what the Puerto Rican experiences on entering an alien culture. The following explanations may help.

There is a certain amount of overlap in the words used above. *Dignidad* and *respeto*, which have to do with the dignity of an individual and respect for those deserving of it, are interrelated concepts. *Machismo*, generally connoting male superiority, is also part and parcel of the other cultural traits. Because these concepts are so central to the Puerto Rican as an individual and as a representative of a culture that is—at least politically—bound to this country, it is very important that the counselor understand how some of these attributes are translated into behaviors. The behaviors discussed apply in some degree to most Puerto Ricans, but in some instances they may be less typical of second-generation Puerto Ricans on the mainland.

Typically the Puerto Rican is highly individualistic, a person who is not used to working in concert with others, following in single file, and, in general, organizing in ways that Anglos would call "efficient." Whether in a traffic jam or a line of patrons in a bank, a Puerto Rican may break line and take a position ahead

of others. But the Puerto Rican will also offer another person the same privilege, being much more tolerant than Anglos of this demonstration of individuality.

Another characteristic of Puerto Ricans is their demonstration of love and tolerance for children. It is rare that a baby or tot, taken down any street in Puerto Rico, is not exclaimed over, chucked under the chin, and generally complimented. This love for children is stronger than its stateside equivalent; generally speaking, in fact, the family unit is stronger among Puerto Ricans. Perhaps because of the love for children, illegitimacy is not frowned on or punished among Puerto Ricans. It is not unusual for families to add to their broods with nephews, nieces, godchildren, and even the children of husbands' alliances with mistresses. It is therefore difficult for the Puerto Rican arriving at a mainland school to understand all the fuss about different last names and shades of skin color and all the confusion about birth certificates among siblings.

The characteristic of gregariousness, a trait common to nearly all Puerto Ricans, often dismays many Americans, who view it as excessive when compared with

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**"Puerto Ricans are seldom found in professional or managerial jobs; they are usually working in low-paying, menial occupations, to an even greater degree than blacks."**

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their own culture. The existence of large families and extended families, the *compadrazgo* (godparent) relationship, and life on a crowded island are probably causes as well as effects of this gregariousness. Puerto Ricans love to talk, discuss, gossip, speculate, and relate. No



one needs an excuse to have a fiesta. Music, food, and drink appear instantly if someone comes to visit. Group meetings, even those of the most serious nature, often take on some aspect of a social activity. I remember more than one dull and pedantic committee meeting at the University of Puerto Rico that was saved from being a total loss because refreshments and chatting were an inseparable part of the meetings. A colleague used to reinforce attendance at meetings in her office by furnishing lemon pie and coffee.

Puerto Ricans' hospitality is related to their gregariousness. In the poorest home in a San Juan slum or in a remote mountain shack, a visitor will be offered what there is or what can be sent out for on the spot. And it is not good manners to refuse this hospitality; it is offered from the heart, and refusal is rejection. The visitor in this situation will give more by partaking of the hospitality than by bringing a gift.

As might be deduced from the preceding comments, Puerto Ricans are sensitive. Social intercourse has significant meaning, and Puerto Ricans typically are quite alert to responses they evoke in others and to others' behavior, even behavior of a casual nature. Often Puerto Ricans avoid a direct confrontation, and they do not like to give a straight-out no to anyone. Marqués (1967) is among those who have described Puerto Ricans as passively docile, and indeed docility is a noticeable Puerto Rican characteristic. Silén (1971), however, has interpreted this characteristic as actually having aggressive overtones, pointing out that historically this docility was simply a refusal to engage in battles that were impractical. Silén has also reminded us of some of the past and present revolutionary stirrings of the "docile" Puerto Rican. Whichever interpretation is accepted, there is evidence that there has been some change in this behavior, especially among younger Puerto Ricans on the is-

land and those Puerto Ricans who have been raised on the mainland.

## PUERTO RICANS ON THE MAINLAND

For most readers of this article, the Puerto Rican living on the mainland is likely to be of greatest interest and relevance. There are approximately two million Puerto Ricans living in the U.S. They come to the mainland primarily for jobs. They generally do not intend to remain here and, as economic conditions for the family improve, increasingly return to the island. In recent years Puerto Rico has made some economic progress and some advances in creating jobs, and thus Puerto Ricans, who typically aspire to live in Puerto Rico, find it increasingly attractive to go back.

This return migration has created some economic, social, and educational problems for Puerto Rico. For example, when younger Puerto Ricans who have been raised in New York City or other areas return to the island, they face certain cultural assimilation problems not at all unlike those their parents faced when they came to the mainland. English-dominant young people must master Spanish for school, work, social life, and participation in family and civic affairs. These youngsters' modes of behavior are often in conflict with the attitudes and values of grandparents, uncles, and the general society. Some efforts are being made to deal with these conflicts, including the establishment of special classes given in English and even the employment of a bilingual counselor or two, but the island's resources are too limited to permit extensive help in this regard. It is fair to say, however, that the Puerto Rican returning to Puerto Rico is treated considerably better than the islander who comes to the U.S. mainland.

Puerto Ricans coming to the mainland often encounter prejudice. Part of this seems to be due to the fact that they are "foreign"; most Americans—even those

**"A person's name is that person, and a counselor's mispronouncing it—whether through carelessness or laziness—can easily be construed as the counselor's lack of interest in the client."**

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whose parents were born in another country—are inclined to be cool, to say the least, toward people different from themselves.

Certainly racism is another significant element in the prejudice against Puerto Ricans. Senior (1965) has reported:

Census figures show that fewer non-white Puerto Ricans come to the States than whites, in comparison with their proportion of the population, and a special study indicates that a larger percentage of the non-whites return to their original homes after a sojourn on the mainland. (p. 46)

But problems for the Puerto Rican are not limited to prejudice. For those young people newly arrived in the States or born here of Puerto Rican parentage, the generation gap becomes compounded by what Senior has called "second-generationitis." These youngsters must contend not only with the expectancies and pressures of a different and dominant culture but also with conflicts of values representing two different cultures. Mainland Puerto Ricans may not be able to identify completely with the Puerto Rican culture, but neither are they a part of the dominant mainland culture. Social scientists often refer to this situation as the "identity crisis" of the Puerto Rican in the States.

As has been shown in the tragic treatment of blacks in the U.S., social and personal prejudice against a group is generally accompanied by a lack of economic opportunities for that group. Puerto Ricans are seldom found in professional or managerial jobs; they are usually working in low-paying, menial

occupations, to an even greater degree than blacks. There are many causes for this. The low educational levels of Puerto Ricans on the mainland is undoubtedly a significant factor. Prejudice, suspicion, language difficulties, and the familiar self-fulfilling prophecy of low aspirations leading to lowly positions also play heavy roles in maintaining the Puerto Rican on the bottom rung of the economic and vocational ladder.

### **PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE COUNSELOR**

The following suggestions offered for counseling Puerto Ricans are based on my eleven years of experience as a counselor in Puerto Rico and on those human relations tenets to which all counselors presumably subscribe. The suggestions may seem simple and obvious to the reader; they are purposely so. They are intended as exhortations for those who are thoughtless, as reminders for those who forget, and as reinforcements for those who truly attempt to accept and understand their clients.

*Examine your own prejudices.* Counselors should consider their attitudes toward poor, rural, Spanish-speaking, racially mixed, culturally different clients. Knowledge alone cannot overcome prejudice, and an intellectual understanding expressed with emotional distaste will only serve to exacerbate the situation. If a counselor has negative stereotyped feelings about Puerto Ricans, it is not likely that his or her counseling relationships with them will be open and warm.

*Call students by their right names.* In Spanish, people are given two last names. The first last name is from the father's side of the family, the second from the mother's. The American custom is to look for the last word, and this becomes the last name. If this logic is followed with Latins, a student named Angel Rodríguez López gets called



Angel López, thus dropping his father's family name. Not only might the father and son be understandably insulted by such cavalier treatment, but the boy's identity—in a real as well as a cultural sense—is in question. For those who fervently desire to maintain their cultural and personal identities without being antagonistic to the larger society, acknowledgment of the correct name can be critical.

Another element in this linguistic area is simply pronouncing names in reasonably accurate ways. Even though other students and staff may pronounce names inaccurately, it would seem that a counselor who espouses the establishment of good relationships might make a special effort in this area. A person's name is that person, and a counselor's mispronouncing it—whether through carelessness or laziness—can easily be construed as the counselor's lack of interest in the client. Counselors can check with a client about pronunciation. (Spanish, incidentally, is much more consistent in pronunciation than English, because each vowel is pronounced the same way in all words.)

*Work with the family.* For the Puerto Rican, the family is much more important than it is for the typical American. If possible, the counselor should deal not only with the young person but also with the family, getting to know them as well as the youngster. If this is not possible, the counselor can at least talk with the client about his or her family. Among Puerto Ricans, the family and extended family are often sought out for help more readily than is a counselor; research, in fact, indicates that the family is the source of greatest help (Christensen 1973). The counselor should realize that others are helping and should work with them, understanding that each person has something to offer. Ignoring this fact is equivalent to refusing to recognize that a client is also receiving help from another professional.

*Refrain from using the child as an interpreter.* In cases where a parent knows little English and the child is reasonably bilingual, it is a temptation to rely on the son or daughter to carry a message to the parent. This should be avoided whenever possible. Even though it might be a source of pride for the child, it might place the parent in a dependent position, preventing the parent from entering into the counseling relationship as a full partner. There is an additional concern: the possibility that the child might twist others' statements. Puerto Rican families are close, but a situation in which a parent continually communicates only through the child can alter relationships and create family strains.

*Understand that to the Puerto Rican you are the foreigner.* One cannot jump into instant relationships. The counselor must give the client time to know and trust him or her. To facilitate this, the counselor may need to meet the client outside of the school or the counselor's office. The counselor should share and be somewhat self-disclosing, revealing some things about his or her family, ideas, home, and so on, in order to give the client a chance to know the counselor as a person. Counselor self-disclosure can be a sign of trust for any client, but it is even more crucial where some feeling of "foreignness" is present in both counselor and client.

*Understand the concept of "hijo de crianza."* This term refers to someone other than the child's parents raising the child—either family members (such as an aunt or a grandmother), extended family members (such as a godparent), or even a friend or neighbor. It also may refer to a family's raising the father's children from another marriage or even from outside a legal union. Counselors must not apply their moral values in such situations. The child is the parents' child through love and acceptance, and exact relationships are not that important.

*Be patient.* This should be a given for all



counselors with all clients, but it is especially true when counselors desire to establish any kind of relationship with clients from a different culture. Puerto Ricans have many obstacles to overcome, some of which are not of their own making. In the counseling relationship, counselors have to overcome some of these same hurdles. Counselors must demonstrate their credibility, honesty, and reliability, just as their Puerto Rican clients must do almost daily in an alien society. The difference is that the counselor is in a more advantageous position, and therefore the counselor's initiative is crucial. The Puerto Rican client may expect the counselor to be prejudiced, arrogant, and lacking in knowledge about Puerto Ricans. The burden is on the counselor to demonstrate that these expectations will not be fulfilled.

## THE FRUITS OF LABOR

The counselor who works with Puerto Ricans of any age and in any setting may find some difficulty in doing so. But counselors who are willing to learn will find the effort rewarding. Puerto Rican clients need counselors as much as—or more than—other clients do. Moreover, in the final analysis, we Americans need them also. For they, along with all people of differing ethnic and cultural backgrounds, offer all of us a richness that even a wealthy country cannot afford to be without. ■

## GLOSSARY OF SPANISH TERMS

**afecto** literally means "affect." Refers to the affective side of life—warmth and demonstrativeness.

**compadrazgo** refers to the relationship entered into when a person becomes a godfather (*padrino*) or godmother (*madrina*). This person then becomes a *compadre* or *comadre* with the parents of the child and traditionally not only takes on certain responsibilities for

the child but also is closely related to the entire family of the other person. In some cases this may also involve even other *compadres*, and then the total relationships derived from this system of *compadrazgo* are complex and far-reaching and form the basis for what sociologists term the extended family, which is so characteristic of many societies.

**dignidad** dignity, but of special importance in Puerto Rico and closely related to *respeto*. One can oppose another person, but taking away a person's respect or dignity in front of others is about the worst thing one can do.

**fatalismo** fatalism.

**humanismo** humanism, especially as contrasted with the more pragmatic set of the typical Anglo.

**machismo** related to male superiority and, in its original form, implying the innate and biological inferiority of women. Characterized as an overcompensatory reaction to the dependence-aggression conflict, *machismo* is acted out through fighting and sexual conquest.

**respeto** signifies respect, especially respect for authority, family, and tradition.

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As counselors, we are heavily involved in the decision-making processes of our counselees. That involvement implies a commitment not only to assist in the gathering of relevant data but also to help provide the analytical tools needed to assess that information. There is one decision-making situation, however, in which we tend to step out of the picture. Perhaps because information is so readily available in such large quantity, we tend to disassociate ourselves from the armed forces recruitment process. When young people make the life-altering decision to join the armed services, they are left alone with the advertisements, alone with the recruiter, alone with a mass of highly complex information. In this context, they often fail to ask the questions that their counselors could have helped them to formulate.

Bill, for instance, joined the army with his "enlistment contract" guaranteeing him training as a welder. Unfortunately, he came down with hepatitis during basic training, and that set him back several weeks. When he was ready for assignment, no training program in welding was available. He was reassigned to advanced infantry. He had no recourse, since the enlistment contract binds the employee but not the employer.

Harry volunteered after a recruiter gave him an oral promise that he could be a missile electronics technician and that this would prepare him to do television repair work after his discharge from the service. Harry's test scores turned out to be inadequate for the promised training, but he was already in uniform. He spent frustrated service years as a steward. But perhaps he shouldn't have been too disappointed, since there is no correlation between missile electronics and TV repair anyway.

There is a good possibility that both of these young men, even knowing what they know now, might have enlisted anyway. Both they and the armed forces

# the counselor and armed forces recruitment

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*Young people considering enlistment in the armed forces often need objective assistance in the decision-making process. Recruiters themselves are under too much pressure to be able to provide that objectivity. The authors discuss how counselors are in a unique position to help: by increasing the scope of information available, by safeguarding the rights of potential enlistees, and by working to eliminate recruitment abuses.*



would have been better off, however, if they had gone in with their eyes wide open. They needed help in the decision-making process—objective help that a recruiter is under too much pressure to be able to give.

### THE PRESSURE OF RECRUITMENT OBJECTIVES

Authority to draft men into the military ended in 1973. During that same year, a report prepared for the Committee on Armed Services of the United States Senate by the Brookings Institute stated:

The job of recruiting 356,000 volunteers can . . . be stated as follows: To maintain an all-volunteer armed force of 2.23 million active personnel under current policies will require that one out of every three (33%) qualified and available men will have to volunteer for active military service before reaching age twenty-three. (Binkin & Johnston 1973, p. 42)

In light of these developments, the armed forces are spending close to a quarter of a billion dollars to convince eighteen- to twenty-three-year-olds that careers with the military usually surround a swimming pool in sunny Hawaii. There is nothing wrong with this kind of advertising, but one has to view it objectively, as one would when buying any

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**"Without the support of individuals who can provide true objectivity, a young person may sign years away, never having clarified the real meaning of that decision."**

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product that is being sold to the best of someone's ability to sell it. Much of this advertising is carried directly to youth. Some is sent through the counselor, by way of our professional journals.

With the increase in advertising, there is also a greatly increasing number of

recruiters—over a doubling in the last two years. In fact, if each recruiter could be assigned a share of the nation's high school seniors, it would work out to one recruiter for every 330 seniors (U.S. Army Audit Agency 1973). And that figure takes into account only U.S. Army recruiters—4,620 of them—who are presently recruiting actively in the field; 6,000 are in the Army Recruiters Force.

The recruiter is under a great deal of pressure to perform and is made accountable for the meeting of objectives. As stated on NBC in a November 1973 television documentary:

Despite the sales blitz, customers are still scarce. The midwest recruiting district has failed to meet its objective since 1971. In the military, failure to accomplish the mission is a serious thing. The result is extreme pressure from above, and most of it falls on the recruiting sergeants.

This was put in more concrete form in the same documentary. A recruiter said, "I've been verbally threatened. . . . I've gotten correspondence where I've been threatened on my EER [enlistment evaluation report]. If you don't put this many people in the service this month, it will affect your EER."

This kind of pressure can lend itself to illegality—to such overt abuses as assisting a recruit with a test, changing a score, or covering up a former arrest record. According to the *Chicago Tribune*:

Army officials frankly admit that the first year of recruiting for the volunteer army was marked by a nationwide epidemic of malpractice and cheating. Reacting to rigid quotas and threats of pay docking if quotas were not met, army recruiters schooled volunteers in ways to best physical examinations and mental tests. They falsified police checks. They promised volunteers more than they could deliver. ("Recruiters Cheat" 1974)

These abuses are under investigation by all branches of the service, and many corrections have already been made. The pressure on the recruiter, however, still exists, and it can be the cause of more subtle abuses. Without doing anything illegal, a recruiter can present a one-

sided picture to a potential recruit who may be unequipped to make informed judgments.

### THE PROSPECTIVE VOLUNTEER

It is helpful to examine the profile of the typical army volunteer, keeping in mind the image of a recruiter under pressure to get a new recruit. A report prepared for the United States Army (Cunningham 1972) presents such a profile, stating that "the prospective volunteer typically falls into an environmental pattern or life situation which is extremely important in influencing him toward the military" (p. 3).

The report presents a picture of a youth (in the case of this report, male) coming from a traditional value system and accepting his father's values, which include a positive view of the military experience. The youth is typically ill-prepared for career-oriented civilian jobs. He comes from a structured home life in which he has learned specific rules for right and wrong. Where minimal structure exists, or when important decisions must be made, he tends to feel uncomfortable. He has high security needs and lacks maturity and confidence. Like most youth, he seeks group approval. Perhaps most importantly:

[This youth] tends to be a reactor rather than an analyzer. The volunteer is typically not an information seeker even though the information to be sought is readily available and may be of considerable importance to him personally. His time horizon tends to be short; he is much more likely to react in terms of what is rewarding in the short run rather than striving for possibly greater rewards some time in the future. (p. 4)

This profile helps bring to light the fact that, in many instances, young people are unable to make and utilize an objective evaluation of the information presented to them. Often their perceptual framework is such that they face the recruiter with preconceived ideas that filter out some aspects of the data. Just as often, they lack the analytical skills

needed to distinguish between promise and reality. Without the support of individuals who can provide true objectivity, a young person may sign years away, never having clarified the real meaning of that decision.

Counselors can provide objective support by increasing the scope of data on

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**"Although the armed forces today are attempting to give recruits what they are promised, enlistees at this time have nothing to rely on but good will."**

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which decisions are based, by safeguarding the rights of individuals who may be potential recruits, and by working to eliminate the recruitment abuses that do exist.

### WHAT COUNSELORS CAN DO

#### Increasing the Scope of Data

High school students in particular cannot be expected to understand all the legal ramifications of the enlistment papers. A counselor can prevent a great many problems simply by understanding those ramifications and ensuring that all counselees have access to the facts concerning the enlistment process.

One fact that must be made clear to all counselees is that oral guarantees made by a recruiter are meaningless. A recruiter cannot bind the army by oral promises. Since the recruiter appears to be in a position of authority, the enlistee might naturally feel that the recruiter's word is law. The courts, however, have followed government contract law and held that an agent of the United States cannot bind it contractually except within the scope of his or her actual authority (Casella 1972, p. 795).



Although the armed forces today are attempting to give recruits what they are promised, enlistees at this time have nothing to rely on but good will. Complete fairness on the part of recruiters cannot be expected as long as there is pressure on them to produce a certain number of recruits. While overt abuses may not be the norm, potential recruits must be alerted to their existence. Any attempts at falsification, even if recommended by the recruiter, cause extreme difficulty for the enlistees once they have committed themselves to the service.

Recruits must also be helped to understand that the relationship between themselves and the armed services is partly governed by statute, partly by military regulation, and only partly by contract law. Quotes from the U.S. Code found in the enlistment agreement can be unilaterally changed by the government at any time and still be binding on enlistees.

Additionally, it must be understood that even if a recruit has signed for a specific training program, job, or location of service, the implied promise is not airtight. Any of these are subject to the military's manpower<sup>1</sup> needs and to changes in the requirements of national security.

A recruit might be faced with any one of a number of unexpected personal obstacles. One recruit might, after entry into the service, fail to meet requirements for entry into a specific program because of problems involving security clearance, which does not precede enlistment, or problems involving unusual physical or mental abilities. Another might find that, if illness or emergency

prevents completion of a given training program on schedule, transfer to another occupational category is in order. Another might find that guaranteed assignment to a particular unit is promised only for a set period of time and that a change in location for that unit means a change in location for the enlistee.

These are merely a few examples indicating the complexities of the agreement between the recruit and the armed services. Regardless of what may occur, only the recruit is bound by the agreement: that is, he or she must remain in the service for the period of his or her enlistment. All of this is basic information that the counselor is responsible for knowing and disseminating. Additionally, the counselor is in the unique position of being able to step into a void and safeguard the right of every potential recruit to make decisions without pressure and with full knowledge of all the alternatives.

### Providing Safeguards

It is difficult for a counselor to act as perennial watchdog. However, building the following recommendations into the normal guidance routine can serve to prevent abuses and ensure the rights of all counselees.

First, students should and do have the right to privacy. The armed forces should be treated no differently from any other potential employer. No one has the right to class lists.

Second, if armed forces personnel are allowed into a school, a counselor has the professional responsibility to present alternatives. Since counselors cannot be expected to keep abreast of the details of changing armed forces regulations, a counselor should consider inviting someone representing an opposing point of view to debate or refute presentations made by the military. This is in the finest tradition of our country, our schools, and our profession. Reliable

<sup>1</sup>Note from the Journal staff: Manpower, of course, includes womanpower. In our effort to eliminate sexist terminology from P&G, there are some inherently masculine words (such as *manpower* and *freshman*) for which we can find no female equivalent or neutral substitute; and we can't bring ourselves to coin such words as *personpower* or *freshwoman*. Readers are asked to bear with us—until the English language catches up to P&G policy—and understand that *manpower* includes women and men in the work force and that *freshmen* refers to all first-year college students.



groups such as the American Friends Service Committee would welcome such opportunities.

Third, if students are interested in enlisting, remind them to take along a witness, to obtain a copy of anything they will eventually be obligated to sign, and to take these papers home to be reread with a fine, critical eye.

Fourth, a career file on the armed forces should include literature dealing with questionable legal and career priorities.

### Acting as Change Agents

The counselor provides an urgently needed service by giving direct information to potential recruits. In addition, he or she may come into contact with the military and thus be able to provide an indirect service by encouraging changes in the recruitment process itself in the form of two specific suggestions. First, the term *contract* should be removed from Form DD Form 4 and replaced with the word *agreement*. Form DD Form 4 is not bound by normal contractual law, and use of the term may be misleading to potential enlistees who assume that a contract must be legally binding on both parties. Second, all potential enlistees should routinely be given a paper that

clarifies the nature of the agreement in easily understandable language. The paper should begin by cautioning enlistees that oral promises made by recruiters are not binding on the military and that all possible loopholes should be exposed.

Many in the armed forces seem to be sincerely interested in clearing up recruitment abuses. We, as counselors, are in a position to help them accomplish that task. ■

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## Reaching Out

How do you reach out to another?  
For some there's the dance.  
    the social.  
    the fix-up.  
But that's just meeting.

How then do you reach out to another?  
How do you know?  
How do you feel?  
    do you talk?  
    do you look?  
    do you touch?

Is sleeping with a way?  
That could be just meeting, too.  
It could be a pattern.  
    one we accept.  
    one meaning close.  
    but it isn't always.

Reaching out *is not* a pattern—  
It's being one, when there are two.  
    being together, when you're apart.  
    knowing, when no one's talking.  
    feeling, when no one's touching.  
Reaching out *is* being—  
It's harmony when all is one.

Or is that a dream?  
    playing games with easy words.  
    playing games evading me.  
Is reaching out just feeling warm?  
While being close, and being me?  
  
Just feeling close and feeling warm.

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# a gestalt point of view on facilitating growth in counseling

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*Personal growth has frequently been mentioned as one positive attribute clients might realize through counseling. On the other hand, textbooks on counseling theory have little to say on the topic of growth. If counselors are to be facilitators of client growth, it would seem essential that they become familiar with the concept of growth and ways to facilitate it. The author defines growth from a gestalt therapy point of view and provides techniques and examples of ways to facilitate client growth.*

Growth is viewed by most gestalt therapists as one goal of the counseling process. In fact, gestalt therapy is one of the few major systems of therapy and counseling that deal directly with the concept of growth (Harman 1974a). This article defines growth from a gestalt perspective and describes methods that counselors can use to facilitate client growth during counseling.

## DEFINITION OF GROWTH

Growth is the ability to assimilate that which is novel in the environment (Perls, Hefferline & Goodman 1951). It is the willingness to experience new things in the environment and to experience old things differently (the use of the word *things* here includes people, objects, and situations). Growth connotes a certain

openness to experience. From the gestalt therapy point of view, growth occurs when a person is willing to make contact with people, objects, and situations in the environment. This contact permits the formation of a figure of interest against a ground of the total environment. In other words, in order for growth to occur, the individual must pay attention to that which is novel in the organism/environment field and be open to experiencing familiar items in a new way.

Just as the taking in of nutrients is necessary for physical growth and the maintenance of health, the taking in and assimilating of new experiences is necessary for personal growth. Growth is a continuous process and not an end state to be achieved. When a person is willing to experiment with new ways of being, this process becomes possible.

## OBSTACLES TO GROWTH

Individuals who are not experiencing growth employ numerous methods of avoiding growth. Below are discussed some of the more common of these methods and the unique ways people use them.

Constant *fantasizing* is one device by which people avoid dealing with their existence, with their problems in the here and now. Excessive fantasizing permits problems to remain unattended



to and unsolved. This neglect of problems produces guilt feelings about lack of accomplishment; thus the status quo is effectively maintained. People who are addicted to fantasizing dull their aliveness. They seldom experience the rush of excitement that can come from *doing* something in reality. Some fantasy addicts entertain themselves and achieve some degree of excitement with their

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fantasies. There is little risk involved in this type of existence; and, of course, very little happens and growth is not experienced.

Closely related to fantasizing as a way of preventing growth is what Perls (1970) labeled *catastrophic expectations*. That is, the person has a fantasy about something terrible happening if some particular risk-taking behavior is engaged in. For example, a male client of mine would not express the love he felt for another person; he told himself that if he expressed his love he would be rejected and hurt and would remain lonely. People who have catastrophic expectations behave as if the stories they tell themselves are true. They see only the negative side; they never consider that something positive might occur. Growth is therefore impossible, since the catastrophic expectations prevent action and are never disproved.

*Prejudice* is another growth prevention method. A person may believe that all members of a certain race, class, or group are similar and possess the same attitudes and characteristics. The person

with this prejudice will behave in the same way toward all members of a group and will reject or prevent real interpersonal contact. Without this contact, growth is not possible; and the prejudice remains.

Along the same line as prejudice, *closed-mindedness* is also an obstacle to growth. When people believe that there are no new data available and that they already know all there is to be known about another person or group, growth is prevented. In a sense, the closed-minded person is saying, "No matter what you do or what you say or how you change, I will experience you in the same way." According to Jourard (1971), when people suspend their concepts of others and permit others to disclose themselves so that concepts can be reformed on the basis of this newly received disclosure, then growth has occurred.

*Closed-mindedness about self* is akin to closed-mindedness about others. That is, a person can have a fixed concept of self and behave in habitual, stereotyped ways in order to protect that concept (Jourard 1971). This person's actions will usually be predictable and growth-preventing, since new ways of experiencing are closed out.

## **FACILITATING GROWTH IN COUNSELING**

### **Awareness**

One of the first steps in facilitating client growth is through the restoration of awareness. This alone will remove some of the obstacles mentioned above. Helping clients to become aware of the present and to be totally in it is an especially effective method of combating constant fantasizing. To be aware of the present means to be involved in the unfolding pattern of living now; there is little time for fantasizing about the past or future.

According to Perls, Hefferline and Goodman (1951, p. 75), awareness is

"the spontaneous sensing of what arises in you—of what you are doing, planning, and feeling." Awareness can lead to integration. That is, in addition to being in touch with themselves cognitively, clients get in touch with their feelings, sensations, and actions. Through awareness, functioning as a total organism becomes possible. Awareness increases the possibilities for growth; more of one's self is available for use. Also, through awareness one's most pressing needs can be brought to the foreground and dealt with as each need emerges.

Counselors can help clients become aware by directing attention to nonverbal behaviors such as body posture, tone of voice, facial expression, and so on. Inconsistencies can be pointed out by the counselor's saying such things as, "Are you aware that, when you tell me everything is okay, both your hands are made into fists?" Another method of increasing client awareness is to encourage the client to stay in the here and now (Har-

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**"Risk taking is central to the growth process. People who are unwilling to take risks are choosing to deaden and dull themselves."**

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man 1974b). However full organismic awareness is achieved, its result can be action that leads to growth.

### **Fantasy**

Fantasies need not always be negative. The counselor can use them constructively to facilitate growth by asking clients to pay attention to their own fantasies. This procedure of directing awareness to fantasies is especially useful when the client's fantasy or daydream is similar in content from day to day. Exploring fantasies provides information about the person's existence. The

purpose of such exploration is to learn what messages clients get from their fantasies. I once worked with a pre-med student who was in academic difficulty because he daydreamed constantly about playing ball. Through exploring his fantasy, he became aware that he had not "played" at anything for several months. He then decided to take some time for playing; both his grades and his mood improved. For this particular client, a fantasy became a guide for *doing* something.

Fantasies can be used to explore and experiment with events not readily available to clients. For example, I recently asked a group of graduate students in counseling psychology to fantasize that they were black. When counseling vocationally undecided students, I frequently ask them to fantasize themselves in different majors and professions. The aim here is to expand their awareness of what they imagine it would be like for them to be that other person.

Also, fantasies are related to creativity and can be used creatively. Many times clients ask, "What would happen if . . .?" Counselors can ask clients to play out their fantasies of this kind. A male sophomore client who was asking "What would happen if I changed majors?" was asked to fantasize all the possibilities. He became aware that he was selecting a major more to satisfy his parents than himself. Out of the "what would happen if" fantasy have also arisen many inventions; the invention evolved when the inventor took the risk of finding out the answer to the question. Clients can be urged to do the same thing in the safety of the counseling office. Thus, attending to a fantasy makes it possible to *do* something leading to growth.

### **Risk Taking**

When clients experience growth, it is usually because they have taken some risks. Risk taking can be encouraged in the safe atmosphere of the counselor's



office. Clients can test out their catastrophic expectations; they can find out what happens when they ask directly for what they want and give up manipulations and game playing. Clients can also experience what it is like to take full responsibility for their own feelings and problems. Risk taking is central to the growth process. People who are unwilling to take risks are choosing to deaden and dull themselves; they become static and zombielike. One important facet of the role of the counselor is to assist the client in initiating risk-taking behavior.

### The Counseling Relationship

As in many other theories of counseling and therapy, the relationship between the counselor and client is viewed in gestalt therapy as being extremely important. Gestalt therapists, however, view the relationship quite differently from the way most other counseling practitioners do. In gestalt therapy, for example, being "helpful" is viewed as being toxic and inhibiting rather than facilitative of growth; it means offering solutions, giving advice, and doing clients' work for them in a variety of ways. Gestalt views such "helpfulness" as keeping clients helpless and teaching them that others will solve their problems for them. As a result, clients do not learn to stand on their own feet. Gestalt therapists would rather frustrate their clients than be "helpful" in this way, and by so doing they create an atmosphere in which counselor and client relate to each other as persons in their own right. Clients are encouraged to stay with their frustration and experiment with new ways of being. It is not from satisfaction that discoveries are made; it is from frustration, from unhappiness with the status quo, and from a willingness to risk new behaviors in order to change the status quo. It is hoped that, through skillfully dealt with frustration, clients can learn to solve their own problems.

It is essential that the gestalt therapist

develop a nondemanding atmosphere. Nondemanding caring is growth producing in that it frees clients from feeling that they *must* do something in order to win the counselor's approval. Clients can then give up their manipulations and guessing games about what they "should" be doing, what they "are expected" to do. Instead, they are able to relate authentically; they are free to express their own essence and existence without fear of being judged or condemned.

### CONCLUSIONS

Permeating the gestalt therapy point of view is the belief that each person is best able to decide what is necessary for his or her own growth. Counseling then becomes a process of restoring the organismic self-regulating function of picking and choosing the kinds of nourishment that are necessary for client growth. In gestalt therapy, the goal is not to solve all the client's problems in life; this is what living is all about. If the growth process can be facilitated, problems can be dealt with as they emerge.

Growth is an evolving, never-ending process. When obstacles to growth are removed, each person has full energy for coping with life in the here and now. For each person, new ways of being are always emerging. ■

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# consulting with faculty: necessary and possible

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*Through case and program consultation with counselors, faculty can become more effective in helping troubled students. In this article the authors offer examples of counseling agency consultation with faculty individuals and groups. They identify and evaluate conditions that inhibit consultation as well as circumstances that facilitate it, with the view that effective use of consultation may affect the future development of university counseling services.*

Warnath has stated that "the college counseling center is in a paradoxical position—the greater its investment in the counseling of individuals, the less general impact it has on the solution of student problems" (1971, p. 63). Psychological counselors see only a small percentage of troubled college students. The primary care-givers are teaching staff, student personnel staff, and peer

counselors to whom students come regularly with personal difficulties. Through consultation programs, however, counseling staff can enable campus care-givers to become more sensitive to students and more effective helpers. It is our contention that mental health consultation (Caplan 1970; Singh 1971) provides a model for developing an approach to college support services in

which the counseling professional can extend the counseling mission. Our work with individual faculty has focused on both client-centered case consultation and consultee-centered case consultation, while work with faculty groups in schools and colleges has included program-centered and administrative-centered consultation (Caplan 1963).

## OVERCOMING THE OBSTACLES

Because many psychological counselors have cultivated an image as "specialists," some faculty have felt that they need not, and perhaps should not, involve themselves in the personal problems of students; counseling requires an expertise possessed only by the professional. Faculty members thus avoid counseling and quickly refer troubled students to specialists. Moreover, the typical university structure isolates professional counselors from the teaching faculty both physically and organizationally. This isolation discourages contact, communication, and mutual consultation with teaching faculty.

The problem is further compounded by the growing complexities and competing demands of teaching, counseling, research, and publication. A highly trained and specialized professor with a particular professional identity and interpersonal style may have trouble assuming the role of counselor. Indeed, specialization appears to promote isolation, competitiveness, and a reluctance to assume nonacademic responsibilities to students. Because these obstacles form barriers to consultation as well as to counseling, they are the very issues to which consultation is directed.

Mental health consultation can increase the sensitivity and ease with which teachers relate to those in need of help. This interaction process respects the particular roles of the professionals involved—in this case, teacher and counselor. Consultation has been defined as

the application of psychological change techniques to a problem situation in which an individual or a group with specialized resources in the problem area and an individual or a group with authority and responsibility for action in the problem area collaborate through interpersonal communication (Rhodes 1960). A change in human behavior can mean a change in the perception of the problem or a change in feelings, behaviors, and skills in dealing with the problem. Any or all of these changes may be included in the development of consultation objectives.

Despite the limitations imposed by the climate of university specialization today, it is possible to develop case consultation programs. At least two situations can provide an opportunity for consultation with faculty: an inquiry from an individual professor about a particular student or an invitation from an administrator or teacher to work with the faculty of a school or college.

## CONSULTATION WITH INDIVIDUAL FACULTY MEMBERS

In the first case, consultation begins when a professor contacts a counselor about an individual student who has personal problems. The faculty member, for example, may be uncomfortable with a student's anxiety about completing course requirements due to some form of stress in the student's interpersonal relationships and may, as a result, seek assistance from a professional counselor.

A variety of counselor responses are available. The counselor can agree to see the student, in which case contact with the professor quickly terminates. Or the counselor may indicate that another counselor is on duty and is handling referrals; again, contact with the professor is rapidly terminated. However, the counselor might explore the dynamics of the student's problem and, if appropriate, assist the professor in working

with the student. The counselor may or may not need to see the student; in either case, this last approach initiates the development of a consultative relationship.

The counselor's initial response conditions the potential consultee by indicating the kind of relationship the counselor prefers with interested faculty and thus influences their future relationship. If a counselor simply accepts the referral, the caller may assume that a referral was appropriate and that the counselor is not interested in the professor's perceptions but prefers to make an independent, professional evaluation. The caller may well conclude that further involvement with the student's personal problems is unnecessary or even inappropriate. No doubt, the student would also sense a withdrawal of interest.

At the other extreme, consultation might begin without a contract or an invitation. In this case, professors who are not aware of the availability of consultation in a counseling agency might react adversely to any premature attempts at consultation. Failure to anticipate such faculty expectations about the counseling service may be construed as rejection rather than assistance when the counselor shifts to a consultant's role. Thus, in beginning a process of consultation, it is important to move gradually from the traditional role of accepting referrals and giving direct counseling to the role of a consultant. Feedback after referral, within the limits of confidentiality, fosters effective consultation relationships with faculty.

The following guidelines are suggested as initial responses to a referral by an academic colleague. First, offer immediate interest in and acceptance of the request for referral or referral assistance. Second, exercise caution in probing for information beyond that which the referrer freely presents. Third, explore all leads sufficiently to allow the referrer full expression of the problem

and to build a relationship. If a workable relationship is established, the faculty member and counselor can proceed to clarify the student's problem and determine whether a referral to a counselor is in fact necessary.

The trust that a counselor places in a faculty member's abilities can promote the faculty member's sense of being a personal care-giver, and under such circumstances the professor may feel encouraged to use his or her unique skills and role identity. The faculty member who believes that the informal consultation was beneficial and that the counselor responded as an interested colleague may request future consultation as well as recommend a similar use of the counseling service to colleagues. Even though

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not all referrals lead to significant consultation, those that do lay the foundation for more extensive consultation programs with faculty.

#### **CONSULTATION PROGRAMS WITH SCHOOLS: TWO EXAMPLES**

Beyond occasional consultation through contact with individual faculty, opportunities occur for developing consultation programs in particular schools or colleges. For example, faculty members or administrators may express interest or concern about their school or college counseling program, or the counselor may informally contact deans, faculty, and student personnel coordinators about faculty interest in counseling con-



sultation. The consultant should remember, however, that ultimately the initiative must rest with the consultee, since successful consultation begins with a recognized need for assistance and a willingness to enlist that assistance. This is no less true of groups than of individuals. Following are two examples of a counseling agency's attempt at formal school and college consultation, one unsuccessful, the other successful.

### **Unsuccessful Consultation**

In school A, contact with the counseling service was initiated by a faculty member who had an interest in student counseling. Two agency counselors talked with him about student problems and the general provisions for counseling in the university. Subsequently, a discussion meeting was proposed to present coun-

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**"In beginning a process of consultation, it is important to move gradually from the traditional role to the role of a consultant."**

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seling issues to the school's faculty in order to increase awareness of campus resources and supportive services for students, identify those student needs and problems that the faculty and staff recognized, and make counselors available for consultation and inservice training.

A panel composed of representatives from the principal counseling and mental health services on campus was to provide information about counseling resources. The faculty members were then to divide into seminar groups to discuss their counseling concerns. Unfortunately, a prior budget issue preempted much of the agenda, and there was time for only the formal presentations and the question-and-answer period. More personal and informal discussion was

precluded. After the presentation the faculty contact asked the agency to submit a formal consultation proposal; the proposal that was developed included a systematic program of faculty seminars and consultation, the identification of faculty coordinators, and a cost estimate. It was submitted to the executive committee of the school for consideration, but we received no further contact from the school or faculty representatives regarding interest in a formal consultation program.

Several factors may have contributed to difficulty in implementing this model. First, only one faculty member displayed a high interest in counseling issues and an energy for program development, and his influence was an unknown. Second, the largest and most influential department of the school had no member among the initial contacts with the school. Third, no initial contacts were made with the administration, and consequently the dean's support was not won. Fourth, the counseling staff had no available time to identify other potentially interested administrators and faculty. Fifth, the restricted format of our initial presentation depersonalized potential relationships instead of enhancing counselor contact with faculty. Sixth, in view of the lack of clearly identified faculty and administrative linkages, the consultation proposal appears to have been too ambitious and premature.

### **Successful Consultation**

In school B, initial informal contact with the counseling service involved a staff member in the school and a staff member in the agency who were personal acquaintances. The school staff member hoped to develop a faculty counseling program, and he met with a small group of influential faculty and student representatives to give legitimacy to the consultant. The agency staff member was interested and was available to assist the school's faculty in exploring

issues surrounding the development of a counseling program.

This group identified the following objectives for a series of training sessions: (a) the promotion of more meaningful student-faculty contact; (b) increased faculty awareness of student needs and student development; (c) reduction of stratified superior-subordinate relationships between instructors and students; and (d) the enhancement of student professional development in certain areas of knowledge, skill, and attitude. The program was introduced to the school, a faculty chairperson was designated, and interested faculty became involved on a voluntary basis in a series of monthly orientation and training programs. A counseling staff member assumed responsibility for the inservice training programs.

Implementation of the consultation program depended primarily on the effective involvement of faculty, particularly an influential faculty chairperson who personally contacted each of the twenty faculty counselors, soliciting their interest, involvement, and commitment. The consultant capitalized on their interest by conducting monthly training programs in the homes of faculty volunteers. The informal atmosphere was conducive to the exchange of ideas and the development of a group identity among the faculty counselors.

The training program was outlined by the founding group in the context of student-faculty dynamics and the school environment. The first training session was devoted to exploring the issues that faculty counselors identified as being important to them in their roles as counselors. The next session introduced the faculty counselors to student developmental concerns and student needs, particularly as these related to the demands of the school. Additional training sessions utilized counseling case studies, role playing, trigger films (Fisch 1972),

and counseling theory position papers. Since the program's inception several years ago, it has been integrated into the operating procedures of the school. Continued contact has been maintained between the counseling consultant and representatives of the school.

A number of factors contributed to the success of this consultation model. First, the consultation developed as a result of individualized contact by influential personnel who gave legitimacy to the agency consultant. Second, interest in counseling issues existed among a small group of committed faculty. Third, a group of students from the school were involved in the formulation of the program, and the faculty responded to them by investing their own time and energy. Fourth, interested faculty convinced the school's administration of the appropriateness of this counseling project and indicated their willingness to work for its implementation. Fifth, a series of informal contacts with faculty were designed, and everyone committed one year to the program. Sixth, the consultant maintained close contact with a relatively small number of faculty who were interested and willing to commit themselves to the development of the program. Seventh, the counseling agency released time for a single staff member, primarily responsible to the faculty chairperson of the program, to coordinate this project. The result was the evolution and continuity of a good working relationship.

## CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Mental health consultation has many of the qualities of individual counseling practice. Users tend to select consultants by individual rather than agency reputation. This fact may be less significant in other professions, but in counseling and consultation a special relationship must evolve in order to allow the client or counselee to expose inner feelings and



concerns. Thus, in consultation as in counseling, a substitute professional is usually not acceptable after the relationship with the first professional has developed.

Our experience suggests that, for effective faculty consultation, it is important to choose individual staff carefully so that personal relationships can develop with the various subunits of the campus. This implies that a staff member must exercise caution in attempting to transfer consulting contracts to other counselors. If a transfer is made, it is likely that when school or department members have a problem, they will call (or wish they could call) the initial consultant. The use of staff members in consulting roles depends on their capacity and skill in creating their own relationships with potential consultees, as they do with their own counseling clients.

The priority that a counseling center gives to consultation depends on political and practical issues. Staff may avoid consultation opportunities because direct work with clients gives more immediate gratification. We urge a modification of the traditional direct counseling approach for four reasons. First, there is growing recognition that there will never be enough mental health professionals to treat all for whom assistance is appropriate; consultation can augment the ability of an agency to work effectively with greater numbers of the population. Second, consultation builds relationships that ultimately can be helpful in changing institutional and environmental causes of student difficulties. Third, since the essentials of good teaching, counseling, and consulting are closely related, counselors as well as faculty benefit from the increased contact and communication that consultation can provide (Chickering 1969; Feldman & Newcomb 1969; Sanford 1962). Fourth,

as counseling centers come increasingly under attack in the current higher education financial crisis, they will need solid support from faculty to maintain their financial priorities. Consultation is perhaps the best way to enlist the active support of faculty members, because it makes them direct beneficiaries of the counseling service. The faculty's long-term advocacy for counseling activities will generally outlast the testimonials of students who were helped through individual counseling.

Consultation offers a way to extend the growth of the counseling services' mission and at the same time can insure the services' survival. Consequently, from several perspectives, there appears to be sufficient reason for thorough exploration and implementation of consultation with faculty for university counseling services. ■

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## Page 118

It sure is a nice day.

What page are we supposed to be on?

My dog died yesterday.

What page are we supposed to be on?

I think my mother and father hate each other.

What page are we supposed to be on?

I wish I were prettier (stronger).

What page are we supposed to be on?

I think that boy (girl) over there likes me.

What page are we supposed to be on?

I wish my dad lived with us.

What page are we supposed to be on?

That makes the second test for tomorrow.

What page are we supposed to be on?

It sure is a nice day.

You're supposed to be on page 118.

I think I forgot to unplug the coffeepot this morning.

You're supposed to be on page 118.

Where are we going to get the money for the new tires?

You're supposed to be on page 118.

I wonder if Susie's fever is down by now.

You're supposed to be on page 118.

I should have told him (her) I was sorry this morning.

You're supposed to be on page 118.

I wonder what he (she) did. There's 150 new miles on the car.

You're supposed to be on page 118.

That makes one hundred and fifty papers to check tonight.

You're supposed to be on page 118.

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# *In the Field*

*Reports of programs, practices, or techniques*

## **An Open-Entry/Open-Exit System for Preparing Counselors**

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Several states—Washington, Texas, Oregon, and Connecticut among them—have for some time been energetically involved in developing performance standards for counselors. At the same time, counselor education programs are beginning to reflect the increasing emphasis on performance by incorporating variations of competency-based components into their curriculums (Brammer & Springer 1971; Hendricks, Ferguson & Thoresen 1973).

These efforts have been powerfully constrained, however, for two reasons: the difficulty of implementing a competency-based program under a traditional grading system and the related problem of granting academic credit for demonstrated competency. Traditional graduate study has required the student to devote a specified amount of time to attaining credits or degrees, perhaps one semester in residence for a master's degree or a calendar year of residency for a doctorate. No emerging counselor education model was totally performance-based, field-centered, open-entry/open-exit; and none could offer participants a master's degree in counseling—until now.

The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory and Oregon State University have developed such a model and are presently refining it through field tests at Oregon State and Portland State universities. The model differs in several significant ways from any other program of which I am currently aware.

### **SELECTION PROCESS**

Traditional selection of counselors for training has relied primarily on students' own motivation and desire, with some emphasis placed on undergraduate grade point average and test scores (Hill 1961; Myrick, Kelly & Wittmer 1972). In the NWREL/OSU model a concerted effort has been made to recruit people who were already employed in an agency or school setting and who were considered to be effective helpers by peers, supervisors, and clients. Other selection criteria have included emphases on candidates' experience in jobs other than in education, their exposure to persons culturally different from themselves, and their ability to facilitate open communication in an interview.

Candidates' performance in the interview and any work samples they submit are critiqued in exactly the same way as a counseling work sample would be evaluated for a trainee within the program: through use of a modified Carkhuff scale measuring each of five facilitative counseling dimensions—empathic understanding, genuineness, positive regard, concreteness, and self-disclosure—on a five-point scale. In addition, at least three ratings of personal characteristics are obtained from peers, clients, and supervisors.

Another unique selection feature of the program is its systematic recruiting of racial and ethnic minority persons. Each cycle of trainees has included black, Chicano, Asian, Indian, and Anglo students and has had an even distribution of men and women. Cultural awareness is greatly heightened when students live, work, study, and travel with persons who are culturally different from themselves.

## PROGRAM ELEMENTS

In a traditional program, candidates generally take the same courses, some exceptions being made on the basis of previous academic experience. In the NWREL/OSU model each individual undergoes an intensive preassessment in which his or her previously acquired counseling skill and knowledge are thoroughly evaluated. Learning experiences based on the resulting analysis are then designed for each individual. Project staff members do not assume that competence exists solely because a course has been previously completed. Competence must be demonstrated.

After entering the program and completing this preassessment, a counselor spends twenty hours a week in an agency working directly with clients. Training, therefore, consists of working to meet the needs of real clients in real life situations. Agency supervisors are trained in

this competency-based approach and participate in planning learning experiences and evaluating counselor performance. The time to be spent at an agency is never predetermined; it depends on the speed with which a counselor trainee is able to master previously agreed-on tasks. Since trainees vary in experience and need, it is possible to have an extremely wide variation in length of placement at any given site.

When a prospective counselor demonstrates competency in all areas prescribed by the program, exit from the program occurs and another candidate takes the vacated training slot (see Figure 1). The rate of completion depends on the motivation and capability of an individual; it is not related to any time variable. Completion time has ranged from four to fifteen months, the average time being eight months.

## EVALUATION OF COMPETENCY

Individual competencies comprising the curriculum were derived through a modified Delphi approach (Helmer 1966). There are 58 competency statements, clustered in eight competency areas. Competencies are written in both a product (outcome-referenced) and a process (activity-referenced) format. Therefore, methods of evaluation differ with each competency module. Following are two examples of typical competency statements.

### Outcome-Referenced Competency

*Objective:* The student will be able to identify facilitative counseling behaviors of other counselors.

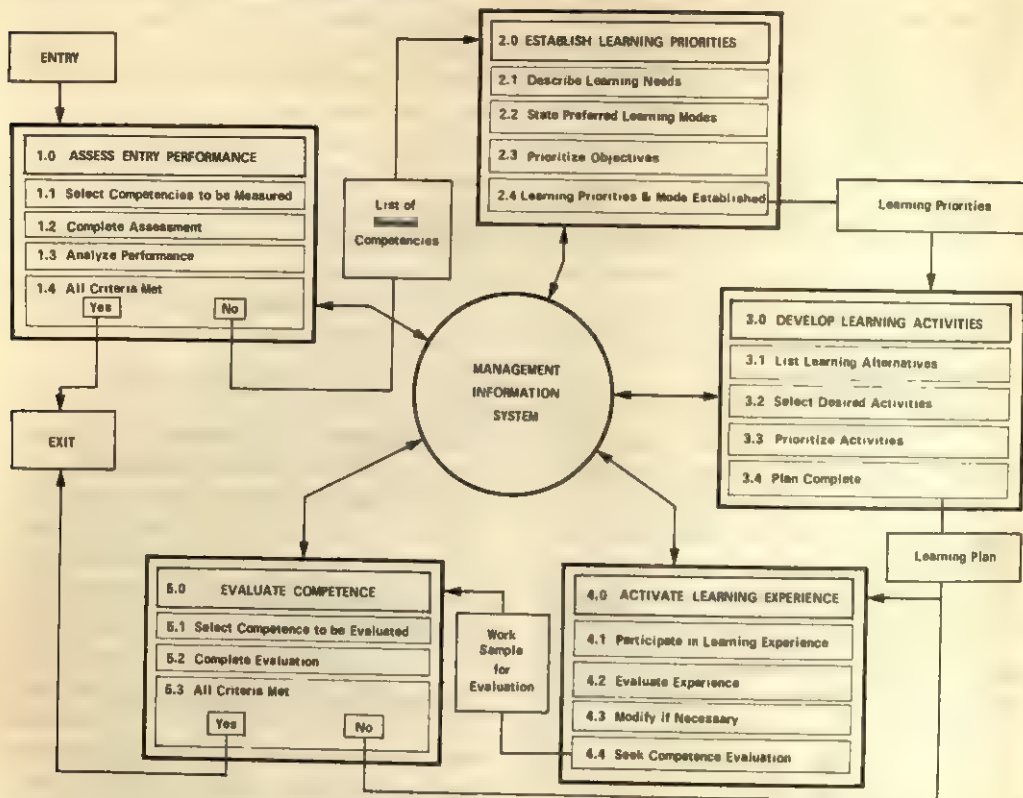
*Criterion:* The student completes a counseling observation checklist that is in agreement with "expert" evaluation of three or more randomly selected counseling work samples.

The assessment procedure involved here is simply to have the trainee



FIGURE 1

The NWREL/OSU Counselor Education System



evaluate three videotaped work samples from a pool of tapes that have already been assessed by two "experts." If, after analysis, the student's evaluation is not congruent with the "expert" assessment, training tapes are used to sharpen the trainee's evaluative skill, and the assessment is repeated.

### Activity-Referenced Competency

**Objective:** The student will develop and participate in a plan for increasing self-esteem.

**Criterion:** The student evaluates present self-esteem by the use of the program's self-esteem instrument, submits a plan to the project instructor for increasing self-esteem, and validates that the plan is in process.

Unlike outcome-referenced objectives, the activity-referenced competencies simply provide evidence that the student is engaged in a specific process that has apparent validity for personal growth. In the foregoing competency component, the students engage in the process of evaluating their present degree of self-esteem and plan a systematic program of increasing it. There is no final goal except to be "in process."

In all the components, evidence of learning is contained in the criterion statement and is never validated unilaterally. Two or more instructors and/or supervisors must agree that the criterion has been met. If students disagree with an evaluation, they may seek a third opinion. This protects students from arbitrary or capricious judgment.

## GRADING AND CREDIT ACQUISITION

The ideal system for assigning grades in a competency-based system would be pass/no pass. However, Oregon State University still uses the A to F format, as do most graduate schools. It was therefore decided to assign either an A or an I (Incomplete) for each course in which the student was enrolled. If a student masters all competency areas related to a given course, an A is assigned. If not, an I is given until the competency is mastered. No one is penalized for failing to meet established criteria; the acquisition of credit is simply delayed until competency is demonstrated.

The model provides a flexible process for certifying competency through individualized and personalized learning experiences. This offers counselors an opportunity to enhance their professional competencies within a program of clearly specified expectations and criteria. The model is designed to be an open system capable of changing as counselors' competency needs are identified.

## PROBLEMS AND POTENTIALS

Complete program evaluation is in process and will be available at a later date. Preliminary information, however, suggests several areas of concern as well as great promise for this approach to counselor preparation.

One of the negative features of this kind of approach is that there are almost certain to be fewer large group learning experiences, since everyone's learning is planned on an individual basis. The opportunities for students to be involved with each other will be reduced, unless a deliberate effort is made to provide for such experiences.

Another feature of this approach is that professors (learning managers) must devote constant attention to meeting the learning needs of students and

thus have little time for outside consulting or other research. One could view this situation as either a blessing or a curse, but in any case the role of the professor becomes quite different when that person must constantly update, coordinate, and evaluate a wide range of learning resources rather than simply meet classes on schedule.

An additional concern is that the program can become very lifeless and mechanical if one simply observes the protocols of the training materials without providing the personal energy that is unique to each counselor trainee and each professor. It is easy for the counselor merely to meet the minimum demands of a competency demonstration without personalizing the experience or intending to pursue the area of competency in depth. This same condition is common to traditional approaches in education, however, so it would not necessarily apply solely to a competency-based system.

A final problem that has been a constant source of concern is developing credibility for this type of approach among colleagues in universities where traditional approaches to education may be powerfully maintained. The possibility of completing the requirements for a master's degree in only four months or of receiving university credit for performance on the job is still anathema to many persons who are committed to clock hours and multiple-choice tests as a measure of learning. A sound program evaluation—the results of which are widely communicated—therefore becomes critical.

On the optimistic side, there is considerable evidence that the approach is a valid one. Preliminary performance evaluations have been obtained from supervisors of the persons who completed their training during the developmental phase of the project. Of 29 trainees, 27 were evaluated by their employers as standing in the top 20 percent,

in preparation and performance, of all professionally prepared counselors they knew. The other two trainees were rated in the top 40 percent on all dimensions evaluated. At this point the counselors appear to be meeting the highest performance expectations of those who are hiring them. Additional performance evaluations will be conducted to evaluate the maintenance level of competencies over a longer period of time.

Another very gratifying aspect of this approach is the high level of motivation that appears to be present among the counselor trainees. Most of them have never before been in a program that allows them flexibility and a variety of learning modes. Their response has been universally favorable and their energy levels consistently high.

A final observation is that resource persons and prospective counselors alike have an extremely healthy attitude about evaluation when expectations are clearly defined. Students seek evaluation rather than dread it, and they feel that they are

genuinely involved in the learning process—in both planning and evaluation. This attitude results in the reduction of competitive behavior and promotes a greater sense of community among the trainees. At this stage we are very optimistic about the possibilities in this approach. ■

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## Guidance Public Relations via Radio and Newspaper

RICHARD G. AANONSEN

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Throughout the history of public education in America, people have demonstrated that they will support school programs that they perceive as meeting the needs of youth. They have not supported what they have seen as unnecessary or peripheral to the process of education. Curtailment of guidance programs, increased pupil-counselor ratios, and lack of adequate financial support has led members of the guidance profes-

sion to question whether various publics understand the counselor's role in public education. Historically, guidance programs have not always been considered among top-priority items in planning school budgets; rather, the highest priorities have centered around classroom instruction. Guidance has received consideration and fiscal support only after the needs of instruction have been met.



In the face of these state and national dilemmas, schools need to undertake planned guidance public relations efforts to articulate the counselor's identity and role. One form of these efforts should be geared toward altering inaccurate perceptions of the counselor's role and reinforcing accurate ones. There are many credible public relations techniques, but guidance personnel must identify potentially effective techniques that are available in the local community. This article describes how one guidance staff implemented a public relations effort in a school district.

The Village of Massena (population 18,000) is located in northern New York State on the St. Lawrence River and is the site of the Seaway International Power Project. It is the chief industrial town in northern New York and the home of Alcoa, Reynolds, and General Motors (Chevrolet Division). In the school district there is one public high school, one nonpublic high school, one public junior high school, one nonpublic junior high school, six public elementary schools, and two nonpublic elementary schools. About 25 percent of the pupils live in a rural area, and 70 percent of the working population is classified as blue-collar. Of a graduating senior high class of approximately 375 pupils, over half pursue further education or training. Remaining graduates either seek local employment, move away from the area, become homemakers, or enter a branch of the armed services.

### **PLANNED PUBLIC RELATIONS EFFORTS**

Massena Central School's guidance personnel determined that the mass media would provide a practical means of communicating with the general public-parent-taxpayer group. Steps were taken to initiate a radio program over an adult-oriented station and a weekly column in the local newspaper.

Objectives of this approach were to help the general public (a) understand the role of the school counselor, (b) learn what resources (school and community) are available to parents and youth, (c) better understand the developmental problems of youth, (d) learn about current activities and opportunities available through guidance services, and (e) learn some of the direct benefits of their school taxes.

While these objectives are general and not all-inclusive, the basic goal in formulating them was to disseminate information that would develop the general public's awareness of the role and function of guidance services and the ways in which guidance services contribute to individual student development.

### **SALES TECHNIQUES**

A primary task in the planning process was to develop a strategy of "selling" the concept to the media. Media management personnel had to be persuaded that the activities would fulfill a currently unmet community need. In an effort to accomplish this "sales" goal, answers were sought to the following questions: Who are radio and newspaper personnel? Do they have children? If so, are the children in school? Have personnel or their children ever talked with a school counselor? If so, did they get helpful information, counsel, or support? After personnel who had had counselor contact were identified, further steps were taken to determine their level of responsibility. Management personnel who had had positive counselor contact were selected as potential targets for the "sales" presentation.

The presentation that was developed capitalized on the past positive counselor contact. The intent was to (a) remind media personnel that they had experienced counselor contact, (b) reinforce positive outcomes, and (c) discuss the child's present situation if appropriate.

Following a short, positive discussion, the counselor would comment, "Wouldn't it be wonderful if more parents took advantage of guidance services? There are so many ways that counselors could be of service in providing educational, vocational, and personal information to parents if the parents only knew that help was available." It was hoped that personnel would respond, "Yes. We live in a complex, fast-changing world, and I'm sure that all parents would find, as I did, that the guidance program is a good source of help for me and my children. It's too bad more parents haven't taken advantage of guidance services." The next step was to "pop the question and close the sale."

## **RADIO**

Knowing that radio stations set aside air time for public service programming, during the spring of 1971 the guidance director called a local radio station to arrange a meeting with the station's program director. Through this meeting, and based on the program director's prior positive contact when his son was in high school, the guidance director was able to outline the counselor's role and the need for disseminating information to students and parents. The program director agreed that guidance information would be of general interest to listeners and was quite willing to take advantage of this opportunity for additional public service. Approval to broadcast a guidance information radio program was granted.

Following a substantial amount of planning, "Accent on Youth" went on the air September 1, 1971. The program is now heard for five minutes a day Monday through Friday in northern New York State and southern Ontario, Canada. As of this writing, "Accent on Youth" is completing its third year. Tapes are recorded one week in advance of air time. A staff announcer opens and

closes each program using a standard script with background music. Along with the program's closing statement, "Good youth guidance is everybody's job," is an invitation to send in questions or comments regarding guidance services in schools.

Topics are varied and uniformly geared toward providing helpful news, hints, and points of view. Some programs are talk shows, others are commentaries. The director of guidance presents commentaries and interviews and does the overall programming. Some of the specific program topics are: the role of school counselors, teenage concerns, being a good listener, whether everyone should go to college, the job outlook, testing, study skills, financial aid for college, understanding developmental needs of youth, where to go for information about careers, the local guidance calendar of events, and ways in which school guidance experiences help the child.

Guests on talk shows include psychologists, college admissions and financial aid personnel, school administrators, teachers, students, counselors, professors, pupil personnel specialists, and representatives from community service agencies.

## **NEWSPAPER**

"Counselors' Comments" is the name of a column appearing every Thursday in a local newspaper. The "sales" strategy used with the radio station program director was also used with the editor of a local newspaper. Following an interview with the editor, who had had counselor contact, it was agreed that guidance information could be relevant for many readers. It was established that all articles would meet certain technical criteria with regard to such things as deadlines, length, format, and so on.

Articles are written by guidance staff members and are from 350 to 400 words

long. Topics include career planning as a process, choosing a high school program, the world of work, guidance information services, what students are saying, parent-child relationships, services for the handicapped, alternatives to college, opportunities for women in the seventies, and current guidance activities in local schools. The column has now completed its first year.

One of the challenges of writing a column is to keep it to 400 words or less. The problem is not so much what to say as how to say it effectively and efficiently.

### **OBSERVABLE OUTCOMES**

Several informal surveys have been done to evaluate the effectiveness of our local guidance public relations techniques. The results have been very encouraging. For example, to maintain licensing the radio station has to evaluate all programming and submit a report to the Federal Communications Commission. The station's survey revealed that many adults listen to "Accent on Youth." Station officials have indicated favorable community reaction to the program. In fact, parents and other taxpayers have suggested topics for discussion. The number of parent-counselor contacts (by telephone and in person) has increased since the inception of the radio program and the newspaper column. School

board members have received positive feedback from their constituents about the public relations efforts.

Radio programs having the greatest appeal appear to be those featuring conversations with college admissions and financial aid officers, case studies describing results of successful counselor intervention, and hints on becoming a more effective parent. Programs on testing have not had much appeal. Listeners seem to be capable of relating to anecdotes illustrating human development as a process and counseling as a catalyst in that process. Newspaper articles generating the highest interest include those on the job outlook, educational opportunities for youth in secondary school and beyond, and informational resources available through school guidance offices.

Overall, it appears that many publics—teachers, students, board members, parents, and taxpayers—are becoming better informed as a result of planned guidance public relations efforts. Locally, guidance services have been strengthened. Since people will support school programs that they perceive as beneficial to youth, the community should be informed about school guidance programs that make a positive contribution to individual student development. In our school district we have found this an excellent way of soliciting public support. ■



# Research in Counseling

Richard W. Warner, Jr., Column Editor

*This column is based on the belief that research can provide meaningful data to the practicing counselor. While individual studies may not provide sufficient data on which to act, a combination of separate research efforts or a large-scale, long-term research project does have the possibility of providing sufficient data. This column will undertake to provide that data by either reviewing the current research in a specific area or examining the results from a long-term project. The emphasis will be on implications for the counselor, so there will be little if any information on research design or statistical procedures. Readers desiring more detail about a particular study should write directly to the original author(s). Readers who desire to have the results of their research and/or innovative approaches considered for review in this column should send the material to Richard W. Warner, Jr., Counselor Education, 2054 Haley Center, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama 36830.*

## Counseling Blacks

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Since the creation of the Office of Economic Opportunity and the advent of desegregation in public education, there has been within the counseling profession a heightened concern with rendering counseling services to minority groups. This concern has been reflected in the proliferation of articles written with recommendations for counseling minorities. The entire May 1974 issue of the *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling* journal, for example, was devoted to this topic; and three issues of the *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL* (May 1970, October 1971, February 1973) were devoted to counseling racial and ethnic minorities.

This review was undertaken to examine the research generated by this increased concern. The senior author, himself black, has been interested in this area because of his involvement in two special projects dealing with training minority students at the univer-

sity level; these projects were designed to retrain black educators in student personnel services. The junior author, who is not black, has also been involved in these two projects, particularly as they have related to the providing of counseling services to minority students. We decided to include in this review any article that had as its subject racial or ethnic minorities. The paucity of research articles in the literature dealing with counseling any of the other minority groups, however, caused us to restrict this review to special programs for blacks. Furthermore, most of the articles we reviewed that deal with counseling blacks were written as position papers and are devoid of research. In most cases the authors discuss characteristics of blacks and make recommendations or suggestions as to what would be the best approach to use in counseling blacks. Several recurrent themes are presented in the rec-

ommendations of these writers. The focus of this review, then, is to see if there is any research to support these recommendations.

In conducting this review, we used the following resources: the ERIC system, several volumes of each of ten specific journals, and several abstracts common to the field. It is unfortunate that at this point much of the interest reported in the literature on counseling blacks, the culturally deprived, and the socioeconomically disadvantaged is in the form of subjective thought articles, with very few articles reporting any attempt at objective evaluation.

### **NEED FOR UNDERSTANDING THE CULTURE**

Currently there is a popular belief in the need for the counselor to understand the cultural background of the client (Rosenfeld 1971). Vontress (1969, 1971), Kincaid (1969), Sikes (1971), and Arbuckle (1972) all pointed out the need for the counselor to understand the cultural background of the black client.

The documented research showing the need for the counselor to understand the cultural background and language differences of the black and/or disadvantaged client is scarce. In one study addressing this concern, Clarke and Walters (1972) surveyed both black and white counselors working with large numbers of black students. Their results indicate the incorrectness of the notion that communication problems between counselors and black students are caused by the client's lacking "middle-class values." They do conclude, however, that counselors working with black students "feel" a need to be less verbal and more action-oriented. Unfortunately, no attempt was made in that study to ascertain how the students felt.

The differences in language are also assumed to be an important factor in the counselor-client relationship, and one study examined that assumption. Schumacher, Bani-kiotes, and Banikiotes (1972) conducted a study to see how well white counselors understood words frequently used by black students and how well black students understood words often used in counseling sessions by white counselors. The results showed that the linguistic compatibility between black students and white counselors is low. The effect of this incompatibility on counseling

outcomes was not reported, and one is left to speculate that this must mean negative results. As can be seen, there is a paucity of research on the effects of understanding the culture and language of black students.

### **RACIAL DIFFERENCES OF CLIENT AND COUNSELOR**

A review of the literature shows a lack of agreement among authors as to whether a racial difference between counselor and client affects the counseling relationship. Some authors maintain that the racial difference alone will cause difficulties for the white counselor and the black client (Kincaid 1969). Other authors believe that all black clients will perceive white counselors as being alike, that is, as being ineffective (Washington & Anderson 1974).

The research literature is inconsistent in its findings relative to the effect of racial differences in the counseling relationship. In an experimental study, Wilson (1973) reported that black high school students expressed mixed emotions regarding their attitudes toward white counselors. In another experimental study, Woods (1974) found no significant differences in the counselor-client racial interaction and suggested that race per se may not be the most important variable in the counselor-client relationship. Three experimental studies, however, support the notion that black clients respond better to black counselors. Banks (1969) reported data showing that racial similarity has a positive effect on the initial counseling interview. Grantham (1970-71) reported that disadvantaged black university students preferred black counselors to white counselors to a significantly greater degree. Bryson (1973) found that university students favored intraracial counselor-and-client combinations (black to black and white to white) over the interracial combination in the initial counseling interview. Thus the findings here are mixed, with three studies supporting the view that black clients prefer black counselors and two studies questioning this assumption.

### **NEED FOR EMPATHY**

Empathy has been identified as the single most important dimension in establishing a counseling relationship (Carkhuff 1969).

The review of the literature supports this, especially in counseling with minorities (Vontress 1967, 1970; Wittmer 1971). When inexperienced black counselors and experienced white counselors were compared in terms of reports of black students desiring to return to see the counselor, it was the counselor's empathy, positive regard, and genuineness that were the significant factors rather than the counselor's experience (Banks, Berenson & Carkhuff 1967). There is a general consensus that, despite dissimilarities between client and counselor, high-empathy counselors are more effective than low-empathy counselors (Banks 1969).

### **APPROPRIATE APPROACHES FOR COUNSELING BLACKS**

A review of the literature as to whether specific techniques and approaches should be used with the black client shows a general consensus favoring action-oriented approaches.

Lefkowitz and Baker (1971) described an experience in counseling black high school students using the "physical action" approach. McGrew (1971) reviewed the literature and found support for Hollingshead and Redlich's (1958) finding that direct approaches are best when working with minorities. The approaches to counseling blacks suggested by Kincaid (1969) are action approaches that are task-oriented. Harper and Stone (1974) have presented the qualities of a good theory for counseling blacks and suggest rational-emotive therapy or reality therapy. The review of the research articles is also consistent in preferring an action-oriented approach for counseling with blacks.

Morgan (1971) reported that the culturally disadvantaged, underachieving youth exposed to behavior theory counseling showed great improvement in grade point average, study habits, attitudes, and self-esteem. Workman (1974) has reported that a behavioristic approach to counseling produced significantly more success than a humanistic approach in achieving the client's goal of increased production. Walker (1973) reported that the Adlerian strategy is a more efficient procedure than the self-emergent counseling approach in eliciting more client responses, more client affect referents, and greater client receptivity with disadvantaged black

clients. Tucker (1973) compared an action-counseling approach with the "traditional" approach and found that the counselees of the action-model approach differed significantly from those of the traditional approach regarding the degree of satisfactory solutions to identified problems. Further, the counselees of the action-model approach saw their counselors as significantly more helpful.

### **GROUP COUNSELING**

Many writers have recommended group counseling with blacks. The efficacy of using this approach, however, is not well documented. Lee (1961) used group counseling with Negro high school freshmen and seniors. The posttest showed a reduction of problems for the group studied, and the conclusion was that group counseling appeared to be an effective approach when counseling with blacks.

Gilliland (1967), using two experimental groups and two control groups, evaluated the outcomes of small group counseling with black high school students. The results showed that group counseling was an invaluable resource in improving scholastic achievement and coping behavior in black adolescents. Williams (1972) used group counseling with black college students and found that this approach effected significant improvement in grade point average. Moates (1970) studied the effects of group counseling on the self-concept, peer acceptance, and grade point average of disadvantaged black junior high school clients. It was concluded that activity group counseling tended to produce positive changes in self-concept and peer acceptance scores; however, no change in grade point averages resulted. None of these studies demonstrated that group procedures were any more effective for black clients than might be expected for white clients.

### **CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

The research reported here is unfortunately meager. Counselors who are conducting innovative counseling programs with minorities are encouraged to evaluate the outcomes and report them in the literature; it is indeed sad that more research has not been reported in the literature thus far.



Nonetheless, the research that has been reviewed here does seem to point out some considerations to be taken into account when counseling with blacks. The following recommendations are drawn from what is currently presented in the literature and deal with elements important in counseling with blacks. Because of the paucity of research findings, these recommendations should be treated cautiously.

1. Research shows that, when working with blacks, the counselor needs to communicate empathy, especially during the initial stages of the relationship. There is reason to believe that this dimension of the counseling relationship has the potential for overcoming any initial problems encountered between a white counselor and a black client. While all counselors need empathy training, it is particularly important for counselors who are working with black students. The research indicates that white counselors can work effectively with black students if they can function at a high level of empathy.

2. Black counselors are more effective in counseling black students; however, this difference appears to be a function of the counselor's understanding of the culture and language and the counselor's commitment to the black client rather than a function of race itself. Hence there is a real need for all counselors to understand the cultural and language differences in black clients, and inservice training should be undertaken by those counselors involved with black students. It would seem most helpful if this training were conducted by blacks from the community in question.

3. The literature reveals that the action-oriented approach facilitates more positive change than traditional approaches in counseling with black clients. However, employment of any approach should be attempted only after an empathic relationship is established. Further, it is imperative that counselors recognize that, just as all whites are not the same, neither are all blacks the same.

4. A group approach that would establish an empathic relationship in the early stages of the group and move on to appropriate action during the later stages seems most fitting when counseling blacks. Gazda's (1971) *Group Counseling: A Developmental Approach* should be a good reference.

5. What appears to be the most important finding from the research is that those factors that have been shown to be important for any effective counselor are especially true for counselors working with blacks. All good counselors must provide empathic understanding, must understand the language and culture of their clients, and must respect their clients. These factors are true regardless of the race of counselor or client. While recognizing the many special problems facing blacks and other minority groups, in terms of providing good counseling services perhaps we should spend more time finding out the common core of effective counseling than placing emphasis on racial and ethnic differences.

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# Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

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The perceptive authors present opening chapters on "The Case Study" and "Understanding Adolescent Behavior," then delineate 10 case studies illuminating identity crisis, drug abuse, social maturity, independence and parental conflict, prolonged education, responsible sexuality, suicide, alienation from society, vocational choice, and minority group problems and pressures. Each case study follows a comprehensive outline covering family history as well as individual history, with thoughtful interpretive questions.

**The School Guidance Worker**, Vol. 29, No. 4, March/April 1974. Guidance Centre, Faculty of Education, University of Toronto, 1000 Yonge St., Toronto, Ontario, Canada M4W 2K8. Pp. 1-60. Annual subscription (6 issues) \$7.00, single copy \$1.50.

This competent journal has concentrated each March/April issue on testing, both the theme and the issue of this "theme issue." Eight articulate articles cover such aspects as standardized tests in classrooms, criterion-referenced tests, tests for placement rather than admission, testing and counseling, tests in research, and nonuse of tests as "some form of psychological witchcraft." The editor concludes that testing "seems to be alive and well in Canada"; its misuse can be deadly and sickening. As a balanced blend of thought-through views, this special issue passes the test.

**Strangers to Themselves: Readings on Mental Illness** edited by Gene and Barbara Stanford. Bantam Books, Inc., 666 Fifth Ave., New York 10019. 1973. 332 pp. \$1.25 paperback.

Prolific compilers of assorted anthologies, the Stanfords read studiously and reap astutely. Though they adhere to the controversial "mental illness," regarded by many as more emotional and less medical, their selections are on target and their five introductions help "give the reader considerable insight into himself and the world around him" (surprising sexist language from strongly feminist Barbara). Fiction and nonfiction are drawn upon to depict neuroses, psychoses, and various treatments. The final section, "Mental Health and You," is weakened by the datedness of its longest selection, "Professional Resources," published in 1960.

**Models of Group Therapy and Sensitivity Training** by John B. P. Shaffer and M. David Galinsky. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1974. 303 pp. \$9.95.

Not "models" necessarily to be emulated, small group methods described here include social work groups, psychoanalytic therapy groups, group dynamic therapy groups, existential-experiential therapy groups, psychodrama, gestalt therapy workshops, behavior therapy in groups, the Tavistock approach to groups, T-groups and the laboratory method, encounter groups, and the theme-centered interactional method. The chapter devoted to each is mainly descriptive, issues being touched on more in the

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introductory and concluding chapters, the latter providing "paired comparisons." Aside from "the group's potential tyranny," insufficient attention is given major concerns requiring monitoring and evaluation.

**Developing Programs for Faculty Evaluation** by Richard I. Miller. Jossey-Bass Inc., 615 Montgomery St., San Francisco 94111. 1974. 248 pp. \$9.95.

"A Sourcebook for Higher Education," this small book could spur big leaps forward in faculty evaluation, a matter of increased concern to students, faculty themselves, and administrators hard pressed by lack of hard money and loss of soft money. With tenure losing its tenacity, needed are improved criteria for retention and for resolution of such dilemmas as teaching competence vs. scholarly contributions. Criteria are easier to establish than evaluate, but Miller offers good grist for a start. His five chapters on issues, strategies, and practices are followed by a comprehensive annotated bibliography—a rarity meriting a special accolade.

**Formula for Success: A Core Concept of Management** by Lawrence A. Appley. American Management Associations, Inc., 135 W. 50th St., New York 10020. 1974. 138 pp. \$7.95. **Management and the Activity Trap** by George S. Odiorne. Harper & Row, 10 E. 53rd St., New York 10022. 1974. 193 pp. \$6.95.

Odiorne, also author of *Management by Objectives*, offers more substance, style, and per-page value than Appley, this AMA's chairman of the board, who claims that "profit is a service in itself" and exclaims, "Productivity is the name of the game!" In stressing that "activity is of value only in terms of attainment," he is close to Odiorne's core concept, "People tend to become so engrossed in activity that

they lose sight of its purpose." Both extend management dimensions to other areas of life, Odiorne more pointedly. He skewers professionals who "persist in . . . activities, as learned, even when the objectives practically cry out for some other kind of behavior."

**Clinical Child Psychology: Current Practices and Future Perspectives** edited by Gertrude J. Williams and Sol Gordon. Behavioral Publications, Inc., 72 Fifth Ave., New York 10011. 1974. 545 pp. \$19.95.

The "official publication of the Section on Clinical Child Psychology of the American Psychological Association," this book of 39 readings demonstrates the diversity of this field, topics ranging from infant development through intelligence testing and sexual stereotyping to family planning. This mish-mash of mainly reprinted material may signify a profession in search of itself, as perhaps indicated by the editors (who contributed several articles) labeling Part 1 "The Emerging Future" and Part 9 "Clinical Child Psychology Reassessed."

**The American Alcoholic** by William Madsen. Charles C Thomas, 301-27 E. Lawrence Ave., Springfield, Illinois 62717. 1974. 248 pp. \$11.50.

Subtitled "The Nature-Nurture Controversy in Alcoholic Research and Therapy," this is a scholarly but readable treatment of one special application of the heredity-environment hassle and the body-mind bind. Through a thesis-antithesis-synthesis analysis, anthropologist Madsen brings pertinent disciplines to bear on this most pervasive drug problem. He devotes considerable space to the considerable success of Alcoholics Anonymous. His 473 references, two detailed indexes, and qualitative merit rate him a mark of AA.





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# Book Reviews

*Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to the Editor, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.*

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|                                                                                                                          |        |                                                                                                                               |        |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| <b>Obsolescence and Professional Career Development</b> by H. G. Kaufman                                                 | p. 392 | <b>Black Agenda for Career Education</b> edited by Roosevelt Johnson                                                          | p. 396 |
| <b>A Legal Perspective for Student Personnel Administrators</b> by Robert Laudicina and Joseph L. Tramutola              | p. 393 | <b>Creating the Future: A Guide to Living and Working for Social Change</b> by Charles Beitz and Michael Washburn             | p. 397 |
| <b>Flexible Guidance in the Elementary School: Tested Techniques for a Stress-Free Classroom</b> by Elaine Todd Koren    | p. 394 | <b>The Counselor and Religious Questioning and Conflicts</b> by Bryan T. Clemens and Darrell Smith                            | p. 398 |
| <b>Communication Workshop for Parents of Adolescents: Leader's Guide</b> by Jane E. Brownstone and Carol J. Dye          | p. 395 | <b>Value Clarification as Learning Process</b> by Brian P. Hall and Maury Smith                                               | p. 398 |
| <b>Fundamentals of Counseling</b> by Bruce Shertzer and Shelley C. Stone                                                 | p. 395 | <b>A Humanistic Psychology of Education—Making the School Everybody's House</b> by Richard A. Schmuck and Patricia A. Schmuck | p. 400 |
| <b>The Big Welfare Mess: Public Assistance and Rehabilitation Approaches</b> edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy | p. 396 |                                                                                                                               |        |

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**Obsolescence and Professional Career Development** by H. G. Kaufman. New York: AMACOM, a division of the American Management Association, Inc., 1974. 193 pp. \$11.95.

This book provides a concise and useful analysis of an important subject—obsolescence among professional personnel, including a cogent discussion of the dynamics of change in professional, scientific, technical, and managerial fields—which should be of special interest to those counselors who may believe that professional careers are relatively secure paths to status and security. At one point Kaufman suggests that new developments are so rapid that students completing a standard bachelor's or even a master's program may already be facing problems of obsolescence when they take their first job.

In a concise foreword Eli Ginsberg states that "the key to an organization's efficiency is the way in which it conserves and uses its

talents" and that "the neglect of professional obsolescence is a risk that no management can willingly assume." There is much food for thought here, not only for managers of public and private institutions employing substantial numbers of professionals, but also for counselor educators and practitioners.

Of particular value is the author's treatment of the human aspects of obsolescence and the detailed analysis of various measures that managers and professionals themselves must take to keep abreast of the explosion in research and development that is occurring in most professional fields.

If the book has a weakness, it is in the overall solutions and conclusions reached regarding what needs to be done about the human problems involved. It is fine to recommend a greater emphasis on continuing education and further study through a National Commission on Obsolescence, but many of the issues are pressing because they

center on the difficulties that human beings confront in facing their own problems of adjusting to change in midcareer and in the middle years of life.

A better understanding of the importance of these changes and their psychological and sociological impact on middle-aged and older professionals is probably just as important as the impact of the technological revolution itself. Counselors and counselor educators will find this book helpful in enabling them to understand why they should be more concerned with career development as a lifelong process—which also requires that more attention be given to the preparation and upgrading of teachers and counselors themselves.

Finally, it is encouraging to see the American Management Association underwriting publication of this book. Hopefully, this will stimulate a greater concern in business and industry for the human adjustment problems of employees in the middle and older years—a long overdue development.—*Charles E. Odell, State Department of Labor and Industry, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.*

**A Legal Perspective for Student Personnel Administrators** by Robert Laudicina and Joseph L. Tramutola. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 140 pp. \$9.50.

This book attempts to provide information for student personnel administrators on laws, legal precedent, and regulations concerning the university and its relationships with students. The authors should be credited with compiling various legal materials in an organized and descriptive way.

The authors suggest that the old concepts of the university existing apart from the community, functioning in loco parentis, and having inherent authority to make all rules that affect student life are myths. They indicate that college administrators, faculty, students, and the community must work together in formulating new rules and regulations.

The information about the student as a dual citizen with both campus and civic responsibilities and about new laws concerning eighteen-year-olds should be of aid to many administrators. The book provides relevant legal cases; many of the cases cited, however, could have been shortened, and comments by

## HOT OFF THE APGA PRESS

### Casebook for School Counselors

1974. By Lewis B. Morgan. This self-teaching text provides a series of simulated counseling incidents and encounters. Each "case" is followed by 4 questions which test the reader's ability to handle the situation, suggest solutions and predict outcomes. The author lists his 5 suggested responses, which for each case are evaluative, interpretative, supportive, probing and understanding. *Casebook for School Counselors* does not purport to be an omniscient authority on the cases presented. But as a mental practice field for counseling techniques, this work is invaluable to students and practitioners alike. 96 pp. \$4 to APGA members, \$5 to non-members. (order #095)

### A Comprehensive View of Career Development.

1974. Edited by Garry Walz, Robert Smith and Libby Benjamin. This monograph is the outcome of a workshop sponsored jointly by APGA, Impact magazine and the ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Center, and held in Ann Arbor, Michigan, June 1973. Each chapter speaks to a significant and emerging trend or theory in career planning—career guidance and women, guidance and the technological boom, models for future planning and much more. The work will interest all with a stake or an interest in career guidance and development. It will provide the reader with a clear vision of what can and should be done, and how. 104 pp. \$5 to APGA members; \$6 to non-members. (order #024)



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the authors concerning the ramifications of these cases would have been helpful for the reader. The book does make a valuable contribution concerning students' rights and possible legal action students can take in order to protect themselves and their rights.

The data on drugs and controlled substances and explanations of federal laws should be of assistance to universities in helping them understand their responsibilities and formulate new policies. The pages devoted to lists, names, and descriptions of various drugs are of questionable value.

The material regarding students' civil liberties provides clear statements on freedom of speech, of association, and of privacy. It also provides a model for university and campus policies. With the exception of some of the legal jargon used in the cases cited, the book should be understandable to all student personnel workers. An area that is not included is that of equal opportunity and affirmative action guidelines regarding students as workers, although other aspects are discussed concerning campus jobs.

On page 113 the authors suggest that the behavioral sciences background of many student personnel officers will be helpful in the years ahead. This is questionable, because many student personnel administrators' training is in higher education and administration.

I believe that this book should be of value to most student personnel administrators as a source of legal information and as a measure of their knowledge of student problems, laws, and court decisions with which they should be familiar.—*LeRoy C. Olsen, Washington State University, Pullman, Washington.*

**Flexible Guidance in the Elementary School: Tested Techniques for a Stress-Free Classroom** by Elaine Todd Koren. New York: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1974. 235 pp. \$8.95.

This book was written to help the classroom teacher "develop and maintain a sound emotional climate" for children to learn in, to provide the teacher with "guidance tools for smoother classroom functioning," and to give the teacher "an insight into the guidance roles of the supervisor and counselor" while providing guidelines for working with these two staff members.

Koren writes directly to teachers about how to use such creative activities as dramatics, role playing, and art to guide children into productive learning experiences. She makes good use of examples and case studies to show teachers how they can use their own special talents in creative ways in their own classrooms.

Other chapters introduce such guidance techniques for teacher use as sociograms and classroom discussions. Behavior modification is described as a method of dealing with children who have special behavioral problems. One chapter is devoted specifically to the humanistic approach, with its emphasis on feelings and values, though I see the entire book as having a strongly humanistic approach. Another chapter focuses on the uses of classroom groups. A chapter on records and confidentiality again stresses the importance of the teacher's role.

Koren understands the frustrations and pressures of the classroom—a good reminder to guidance personnel. She recommends teacher-counselor discussion groups in which teachers can discuss their feelings of anger and panic and find out that it is all right to have these feelings, which are shared by colleagues and understood by counselors.

Koren has tried hard to make her book universally applicable to teachers of children everywhere. However, her experience as a teacher and counselor in the New York City schools shows through from time to time with language and examples that are—if not unique to New York City—more common to urban than to rural or suburban schools. Readers from inner-city schools will particularly learn from the chapter on the ghetto and enjoy the examples. Much of the material does have universal appeal, and any teacher should be able to winnow out that which is not relevant in the local scene.

This book is easy and enjoyable to read. It is full of practical suggestions and interesting examples. Written as a handbook, its references to the literature are limited. Those references that are given immediately follow the topic as suggested reading.

If I were an elementary school counselor, I should like to have this book on my shelf for my own use as well as to loan out to teachers. As a counselor educator, I would urge its use in service courses for teachers. It is a very

human book.—*Mary G. Ligon, Hofstra University, Hempstead, New York.*

**Communication Workshop for Parents of Adolescents: Leader's Guide** by Jane E. Brownstone and Carol J. Dye. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1973. 73 pp. \$3.50.

Are you a high school counselor or a person who works with parents of adolescents? Have you been wanting to start a parent discussion group but haven't known how to go about it? Do you wonder how much structure is desirable? How many sessions should be planned? How many parents should be in a group? If these are the kinds of questions that have been besetting you, this booklet is what you have been looking for. Or if you are already doing parent groups, this booklet will be a fine check against your own way of working.

The structure for the workshop is carefully planned with regard to topics, but it is flexible and personal. The workshop is scheduled for five sessions. While groups have varied from 8 to 25 members, the recommended size is 12 to 14 members.

The five sessions fit well together. The opening session is on parents' major concerns and goals. This is followed by a session on communication skills, based on an inventory of communication practices taken by parents and adolescents. The third session is on styles of communication, the fourth on discipline and setting limits. The final session is on family values. Inventories and questionnaires are collected from the parents and their adolescent children to provide personal involvement in the group discussion. The exercises are carefully selected to help people learn from their own experiences and to illustrate alternative ways of improving communications. Homework is assigned for each session. All parents receive a small pamphlet, *Parent's Review*, so that they may review the significant points developed from each session. The pamphlet contains space for each class to develop its own ideas and to compare them with the ideas of previous classes.

To me, this guide's only shortcoming is in its very limited references. Beginning discussion leaders need all the help they can get. Additional references, such as Gordon's *Parent Effectiveness Training* and Driekurs and Grey's *A Parent's Guide to Child Discipline*, would be very desirable.—*Clarence A. Mahler, California State University, Chico.*

**Fundamentals of Counseling** by Bruce Shertzer and Shelley C. Stone. Second edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1974. 484 pp. \$10.95.

If you are in the mainstream of counselor education, you might well consider this updated and expanded second edition by a pair of seasoned professionals as a text for the first course. If you are a graduate student preparing for final examinations, you will probably find it invaluable—thorough, scholarly, and wise. On the other hand, if you are a prospective counselor who has never faced a troubled person, this lengthy recital of theory and research will probably provide little practical help in bridging the gap between your present self-structure and projected professional counselor's role. If you are a seasoned practitioner, you are likely to be as bored as if you were eating dry corn flakes—unless you reach the last chapter on issues and trends. If you are a teacher, administrator, specialist, or parent who knows little about counseling, you will not learn much here about what counselors really do or how to talk with clients.

The book is at its best in providing experienced students or counselor educators with a framework for the past, present, and future of professional counseling; in relating counseling to the social sciences; in promoting an understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of counseling practices as documented by a wealth of research; in providing an orientation to counseling as an emerging profession; and in discussing honestly and fair-mindedly such issues as the school counselor and discipline or the counselor as an agent of change in the school.

The authors' definition of counseling as "an interaction process" (where? with whom?) is so broad that it defeats their desire to foster the development of the counselor's role and identity. They might have been wiser to restrict themselves to interaction with pupils in the American secondary school. After reading the authors' attempt to deal with nine "counseling" (?) approaches in two brief chapters, I admire their courage but question their judgment. Furthermore, six of the nine approaches (rational-emotive therapy, reciprocal inhibition, Freudian analysis, client-centered therapy, existentialism, and gestalt therapy) were developed by psychiatrists and clinical psychologists for

application with disturbed adult patients; yet few readers of this book will become psychotherapists in private practice or in a mental hospital.

Finally, I hope that Houghton Mifflin will edit the third edition more carefully; there are too many words, too many redundancies, and too many circuitous sentences. In spite of these shortcomings, the authors are old hands and have much of value to say.—*Arthur A. Dole, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.*

**The Big Welfare Mess: Public Assistance and Rehabilitation Approaches** edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1973. 348 pp. \$11.95.

This book is designed for rehabilitation counselors, social workers, psychiatrists, psychologists, and others concerned with helping the disabled to achieve personal, social, and economic independence from the public welfare system. I think the book would also be of value to students in the cited areas and to government officials.

Chapter contributors are expert practitioners, educators, and researchers who feel that innovations in rehabilitation processes are now urgent. The book gives a good review of how the Federal Rehabilitation Program developed. The rehabilitation process, including counseling, is explained.

The contributors feel that many of the difficulties of rehabilitating welfare clients spring from nationwide procrastination and lack of interest in doing something positive for the less fortunate, which can be traced to public attitudes toward the physically and mentally disabled as well as the attitudes of the disabled toward themselves and the helping services. Additional difficulty lies in professional attitudes toward welfare recipients and professional procrastination with regard to coordinating services. It is one thing to give verbal recognition to the worth and dignity of each individual and quite another to work diligently in the individual's behalf.

Related to this worse of the myths, realities, and legal problems of welfare recipients are discussed in the book. These discussions should interest lay readers and nonprofessional board members of agencies, since agency policy should be formulated on the basis of such factual information about the

needs of those expected to benefit from agency services.

The book's contributors recognize that, with an ever-expanding economy and increasing emphasis on the Gross National Product, vocational rehabilitation programming is ideal for placing the physically and mentally disabled in the labor market. They also recognize its drawbacks, including the fact that in the currently shaky economy there may not be enough jobs for the able-bodied and skilled workers. The contributors' suggested innovations seem contingent on a reordering of national priorities and values, bringing into being comprehensive manpower legislation, welfare reform, and large-scale public employment programs. Like many professionals in the helping services, these contributors are not only idealistic but also realistic in recognizing a need for their social action toward necessary legislation. They astutely believe that a "new breed" of rehabilitation counselor must be trained to meet the demands of suggested innovations.

Since the book is a wholesome balance of realism and idealism, it should serve as a guide to people at various levels of government who should seriously consider giving top priority to the proposals the contributors make.—*Frank V. Touchstone, Mental Health-Retardation Center, Hazard, Kentucky.*

**Black Agenda for Career Education** edited by Roosevelt Johnson. Columbus, Ohio: Educational and Community Consultant Associates, Inc., 1974. 148 pp. \$4.95.

"The need for developing this book is impeccably clear when one travels around the country, attends conferences, visits classroom teachers, and overhears conversations by concerned professionals and parents [about] career education. The general tone of these conversations [is that of] anxiety, confusion, dismay, scorn, hostility, and a sense of incredulity. To be even more specific, it is the black personnel and parents in most instances who express mistrust relative to the adoption of the components of career education for the educational goal toward which oppressed and aggressive black children are now to be educated, and in the case of corrections (prisons), rehabilitated."

These provocative statements are but a few of the many to be found in Johnson's small



book. His experience is reflected in the content of the three chapters he authored: "Black Agenda for Career Education," "Career Education and Blacks: A Crisis of Disbelief," and "What a Difference a Black Counselor Makes."

A major accomplishment of this book is that it compiles the critical papers of several contributors who have similar perceptions regarding the potential strengths but dangerous pitfalls present in operationalizing the ambiguous concept of career education on a nationwide basis. Johnson is unrelenting in his attack on the career education concept, emphasizing its insidious threat to the basic education and subsequent careers of blacks.

The contributors who follow, in their chapter-by-chapter presentations, weave historical patterns, present data on the education and unemployment of blacks, evaluate the evaluators, and somewhat extraneously discuss the development of institution goals. Brazziel, in his chapter, "Career Education and Black Americans," gives the reader a sense of the underlying theme of criticism expressed by each author when he says, "Career education could very well take black Americans back to Booker T. Washington with black children and youth urged to let their buckets down where they are and become hewers of wood and drawers of water."

I urge counselors to read this small book so that they understand the sorry state of affairs in our counseling and guidance system as it "unrelates" to blacks and so that they understand why the contributors perceive the implementation of a supposedly respectable concept as potentially devastating in its impact on the black community.—*Hugh C. Banks, New York University, New York City.*

**Creating the Future: A Guide to Living and Working for Social Change** by Charles Bertz and Michael Washburn. New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1974. 422 pp. \$1.95.

To quote the authors, "This is our source book, our essential guide, a job catalog for activists." Such it is. *Creating the Future* is a catalog of information relating to social change and social change vocations, the reconstruction of communities, and movements and pressure politics, the book culminating in a plea for a world community.

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Interspersed throughout are commentary, addresses of leaders and community activist groups, up-to-date information on obtaining legal skills (and degrees through alternative learning experiences), and even information about infiltrating the American business world to implement socioeconomic change. In many regards this is an excellent, informative, and needed book.

Counselors might be said to need it, because they are daily being confronted by kids who are opting for just the kinds of approaches to committed living that this book calls for. The kids need it and can use it, for it contains much valuable information related to professions in which social change can be wrought. Even the general public needs it, because it is talking about those situations that occur around us continuously, of which we have little knowledge and little firsthand experience. Obviously, I am very impressed with the book.

The book is, for the most part, clearly written and not, as I expected, written in the radical language of many counterculture speakers. There are a few sections in which the viewpoint of the authors is clearly delineated. I feel that at times the authors stereotype me and talk down to me. They seem to assume, for example, that I believe "that the lawyer (in our society) clearly should reap most of the profits and take most of the credit, from victories due to his/her legal staff's research and shrewd work." Other passages also include dialogue that appears to assume that the reader is not aware of the rip-offs in our system. While the writing is sometimes colored by the authors' partisan point of view, the book as a whole is delightful and impressive reading, thoroughly accurate in every detail, and, frankly, hard to put

down (though it's one of those books that you can take with you and read a little at a time).

Practicing counselors should have no difficulty sorting out those sections they can use, and they will probably find the answers to many questions students have asked of them. If they were concerned only with updating vocational counseling skills, the book would certainly suffice, at least in those areas it deals with. But more important, the ultimate value of the book may lie in its potential for reawakening counselors to their social responsibilities to both their communities and their students. In brief, this is a very *useful* book.

—Jon Boller, *Head Start, Governor's Office, St. Paul, Minnesota.*

**The Counselor and Religious Questioning and Conflicts** by Bryan T. Clemens and Darrell Smith. One volume of "Special Topics in Counseling," Series VII of the *Guidance Monograph Series*, edited by Shelley C. Stone and Bruce Shertzer. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1973. 80 pp. \$2.00 paperback.

This book is a brief, clear statement of what the authors believe to be reasonable goals, major problems, and helpful procedures for counselors who wish to be more effective in aiding their clients in the many religious and ethical conflicts that beset humankind. The focus is chiefly that of young people in schools and colleges. The book should be helpful in clarifying the role of the counselor in aiding the developmental process of young people facing up to an increasingly complex world and the conflicting demands of groups and individuals within that world.

The authors leave little doubt as to where they stand on major points, and they do not lack suggestions for those who come to share their point of view. They have also done a creditable review of pertinent literature on the views of others about religious and moral development. From these writings and from their own thinking emerges a synthesis that calls for a more active role of the counselor.

The authors explore models for understanding and helping to clarify the client's religious and moral problems, leaning toward Brammer and Shostrom's perceptual models for developing a philosophy of life and for functioning in the role of a therapeutic counselor in dealing with value problems. There is also discussion of group activities, programs already tried, sources for informa-

tion on experimental programs, and the necessity for counselors to articulate and think through their own philosophy of life and their own views on the great questions of humankind.

Most of the authors' suggestions are quite sound and are worthy of further investigation. Among their recommendations, however, are some that could cause legal concern in some states. On page 65, for example, they advocate the use of school facilities for "leadership training" seminars (which they state are akin to "old-time Sunday School instruction") and other activities. While there is precedent for this, there have been mixed legal decisions about it, depending on the state involved.

While the book will not satisfy those who wish to keep the counselor's values as totally out of the counseling office as possible and will not satisfy those who view such counseling as a chance to "set the client straight" (by advocacy of a particular value system), the authors present a well-reasoned book that raises many basic questions, present opposing views as well as their own, and offer some approaches that, if carefully used with due regard for legal strictures, can benefit school counselors and others.—Carlton E. Beck, *University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee.*

**Value Clarification as Learning Process** by Brian P. Hall and Maury Smith. Vol. 1: **A Sourcebook** (Hall), 306 pp., \$7.95. Vol. 2: **A Guidebook** (Hall), 253 pp., \$7.95. Vol. 3: **A Handbook for Christian Educators** (Hall and Smith), 270 pp., \$7.95. New York: Paulist Press, 1973.

It still happens now and then. A person pokes an accusing finger at us and says (rather triumphantly), "That's a value judgment!" as if we had been caught in some dastardly act. But by and large, "value," once the bane of counselors, has been rehabilitated. Indeed, "value clarification" has become a bit of a rage in educational circles. In these three volumes we have something over 800 pages of the philosophy and technology of this burgeoning movement.

The *Sourcebook* details the philosophical and psychological assumptions that constitute the underpinnings of value clarification. It should be clear that the process, as Hall outlines it, is not simply exploratory, not simply a matter of uncovering what values we do in fact hold. The point of the enterprise is not

merely to examine the choices at the core of a person's life in keeping with the popular rendering of the Socratic admonishment to self-scrutinize; it is hortatory as well.

That is, Hall has definite ideas as to what those choices ought to be. Thus the *Sourcebook* catalogs that estimable group of desiderata, which are, in the main, those characteristics lionized by so-called humanistic psychology. The book is punctuated with photographs that often lend effective emphasis to a point being made by the text and in many cases provide eloquent testimony of their own. There are as well a number of paper-and-pencil exercises intended to illumine for readers the values on which their own lives rest. Several of these seem to have definite promise for clinical application.

At times the reader has the sense of having gotten a fresh purchase on the notion of value. There are, to be sure, discussions in the *Sourcebook* about the place of work, guilt, fantasy, and leisure that should be useful to many a practicing educator. At other times it seems that one is laboring through an elementary text intended to introduce adolescents to popular sociology and to edify young minds. Certainly for those at home with the humanities and their relevance to education, there will be a sense of déjà vu. But, on balance, the virtues of the *Sourcebook* seem to outweigh these liabilities.

The *Guidebook* is intended as a means to the concretization of the ideas enunciated in the first volume. It is a compendium of value clarification exercises articulated in terms of a seven-part paradigm: introduction, materials needed, numbers, time, procedures, possible outcome, and appropriate clientele. The exercises almost invariably involve something that is to be written by participants and subsequently discussed in small groups. Accordingly, the book provides a welter of forms, generally "the materials needed." These exercises are later orchestrated into a series of one-, two-, and three-day conferences, which the author and his colleagues have tested and recommend to the reader. In all, anyone interested in applying value clarification to groups of high school students, teachers, or professional trainers will find much profit here.

The *Handbook* is an attempt to sell the notions developed in the other two volumes to educators within orthodox Christian

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churches. Cannily, the authors neither belittle nor threaten the establishment, using humanistic approaches to learning and teaching to convey the religious message in an especially direct and effective way. Finally, the book presents some of the methodology for applying "inductive education" to the religious context, offering specific strategies, exercises, and descriptions of actual projects. The *Handbook* should be of considerable usefulness to religious educators in search of more meaningful modes of dealing with adolescents (and adults) and to humanistic educators eager to communicate with their counterparts in religious organizations. —Thomas W. Allen, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.

**A Humanistic Psychology of Education—Making the School Everybody's House** by Richard A. Schmuck and Patricia A. Schmuck. Palo Alto, California: National Press Books, 1974. 388 pp. \$5.95 paperback.

This book deals with various strategies for humanizing our schools. In the preface the authors promise to go beyond the works of Herndon (*The Way It Spozed to Be*) and Silberman (*Crisis in the Classroom*) and "grapple with ways of humanizing schools by using theory and research available from the social sciences—social psychology in particular." It is their thesis that the crisis in the schools "lies in interpersonal conditions; the changes demanded are in the area of human relationships." The philosophical model that the authors use as their rationale for making changes in the school is based on Martin Buber's I-Thou relationship. They fulfill their promise to a large extent, but the cost to the reader is incredible verbosity.

The authors trace various approaches to mental health—as far back as Freud and as recent as Skinner—and conclude that "the mental health application can be superior to the therapeutic and behavioristic applications for reaching the goal of humanizing our schools." Unfortunately, although their point is well taken, the research cited is often irrelevant or contradictory to the point they are trying to make. About six pages are specifically devoted to the role they propose counselors should play. It is refreshing to read the authors' reiteration of the theme that counselors should put less emphasis on

psychopathology and more emphasis on the relationship between a client's mental health and the psychosocial nature of the school environment.

Since this book deals with humanizing our schools, those counselors who are looking for new ideas may find a few within its 388 pages. Unfortunately, the reader will have to wade through a lot of unrelated material along the way. The annotated bibliographies that follow each chapter are superb and serve as an excellent source for additional information on the topics discussed.—Stephen G. Weinrach, Villanova University, Villanova, Pennsylvania.

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|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Title of publication: THE PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL. 2. Date of filing: October 1, 1974. 3. Frequency of issues: 10 issues yearly, September through June. 4. Location of known office of publication: 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. 5. Location of the headquarters or general business offices of the publisher: 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. 6. Names and addresses of publisher, editor, and managing editor: Publisher—American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Editor—Leo Goldman, 34 Cathay Road, East Rockaway, N.Y. 11518. Managing editor—Robert A. Malone, 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. 7. Owner: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. 8. Known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders owning or holding 1 percent or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities: American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D.C. 9. For completion by nonprofit organizations authorized to mail at special rates: The purpose, function, and nonprofit status of this organization and the exempt status for federal income tax purposes have not changed during the preceding 12 months. 10. Extent and nature of circulation: |                                                        |                                                               |  |
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**Programs.** The APGA program is designed to promote and stimulate exchange of professional experience and knowledge through regional, state, and local meetings; through professional journals, monographs, and other publications on topics significant to the field; and through a national convention.

**Membership.** The Association's membership includes over 34,000 people with bachelor's degrees or advanced degrees in guidance, counseling, and student personnel work. Members are active in many professional settings, including every educational level from kindergarten through graduate school, adult education, community agencies, government, business, and industry.

**Divisions.** APGA is composed of 11 divisions that represent special interests within the profession. They are:

1. American College Personnel Association (ACPA)
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The *Personnel and Guidance Journal* invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) current professional and scientific issues, (b) new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners.

All material should aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners. For a detailed description of stylistic and other requirements, authors are referred to Judy Wall's article, "Getting into Print in P&G: How It's Done," in the May 1974 issue of P&G. Following are guidelines for submitting a manuscript.

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1. Send the *original* and two *clear* copies. Original should be typed on 8½ x 11 nontranslucent white bond.
2. Double-space *everything*, including references, quotations, tables, and figures. Leave extra space above and below subheads.
3. Leave generous margins (at least an inch all around) on each page.
4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.
5. Place references, each table, and each figure on pages separate from the text.
6. Place authors' names, positions, titles, places of employment, and mailing addresses on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.
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THE PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL is the official journal of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. It is directed to the mutual interests of counselors and personnel workers at all educational levels from kindergarten to higher education, in community agencies, and in government, business, and industry. Membership in APGA includes a subscription to the JOURNAL.

**Manuscripts:** Submit manuscripts to the Editor according to the guidelines that appear in every issue of the JOURNAL.

**Subscriptions:** Available to nonmembers at \$20 per year. Send payment with order to Leola Moore, Subscriptions Manager, APGA.

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**Indexing:** The JOURNAL's annual index is published in the June issue. The JOURNAL is listed in *Education Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *College Student Personnel Abstracts*, *Sociology of Education Abstracts*, *Personnel Literature*, *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, *Mental Health Book Review Index*, *Poverty and Human Resources*, *Exceptional Child Education Abstracts*, and *Employment Relations Abstracts*. Book reviews are indexed in *Book Review Index*.

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Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered, U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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My present textbook on tests and measurement is

- a) too long
- b) too short
- c) too difficult
- d) out of date

If "any of the above,"  
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C. M. LINDVALL

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*Publication: March 1975*

Paperbound. 320 pages (probable)

## Measuring Educational Outcomes Fundamentals of Testing

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# Feedback

*Letters for Feedback should be under 300 words. Those selected for publication may be edited or abridged by the Journal staff.*

## Training for All Behavior Modifiers

I must report that certain inconsistencies inherent in the article "Black Concern with Behavior Modification," by Bardo, Bryson, and Cody (September 1974 P&G) seem striking and at times confusing. True, ethnic minority representation among the elite group of behavior modifiers is scant at best and should be a central concern. But of equal concern is the inadequate training given to all potential behavior modifiers, training that renders them insensitive to legitimate concerns of a given minority population. The immediate solution lies in training, not in quotas, with both being important and separate issues which demand different but complementary solutions.

If the authors would have us believe that by simply increasing the number of black behavior modifiers we would upgrade behavior modification in the black community, then their assumption is partially correct, but painfully so. For the same inadequate training system that pervades the professional training of all behavior modifiers is also capable of training inadequate black professionals. Why not take the necessary steps to upgrade what many (myself included) see as an insensitive and deficient system of little value to the minority population before we hastily assume greater minority interest and participation. If not, we just may give a party and no one will come.

RICHARD L. CARHART  
Graduate student  
Governors State University  
Park Forest South, Illinois

## Look Up to Canada

I found "Guidance U.S.A.: Views from Abroad" (September 1974 P&G) to be refreshing and certainly a step in a healthy di-

rection for guidance in our country. We do need "greater perspective and insights . . . as to who we are and why we do as we do." Counselors are not valueless, and therefore it is extremely important to relate our values to those held by professionals in other enlightened countries.

The observations from Canada by Christie were of particular interest to me, because I spent the past three summers teaching in Canadian universities (two sessions in St. John's, Newfoundland, and one in Ottawa, Ontario). While in these places I interviewed directors and heads of guidance and found them to be very hospitable and interested in sharing professional experiences. Like Christie, I found the Canadians to be much more aware of what is going on in the States than we are of events taking place in Canada. This ignorance on our part is most unfortunate, because Canada seems to offer healthy alternatives to some of our social problems. Like us, they haven't solved the inflation problem, but on the other hand, Newfoundland has fewer murders in a year than we have in a weekend in some of our cities!

Hats off to the editor of P&G, and Christie can be assured that I, for one, recently sent in my application to the Canadian University Counseling Association and the Canadian Psychological Association to keep in touch with our friends up north.

HOWARD S. ROSENBLATT  
University of North Carolina at Asheville  
Asheville, North Carolina

## Reactions to Ponzo's Article

I enjoyed Zander Ponzo's article in the September 1974 issue concerning the trials and tribulations of being a change agent in the schools. I think, however, that Dr. Ponzo was unduly harsh on himself concerning his ef-

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fectiveness in Lincoln High School. Specifically, he states that "procedures were established to improve communication among faculty, administration, and student body; to teach Negro History; and to improve black-white relations." It appears that these were significant gains and that they were largely brought about by Dr. Ponzo himself.

Dr. Ponzo's experience at Lincoln does illustrate one point that I have repeatedly stressed: The individual who is most equipped to initiate change in a system may not be one who is most equipped to carry through the change in that system subsequently. It often happens that a system changes only as a response to direct and forceful confrontation by a change agent. In the process, however, this change agent often loses his credibility and is in no further position to carry out the change which he has initiated. If another change agent who is in basic sympathy with the aims and goals of the first can then be brought into the system, that second person is generally in a better position to carry through and maintain this change. This is essentially a division of function between production and maintenance of change.

I have personally seen this "division of labor" operate in at least two situations. It is unfortunate, however, that the first change agent must in a sense be a "sacrificial lamb."

E. THOMAS DOWD  
Florida State University  
Tallahassee, Florida

Zander Ponzo's article, "A Counselor and Change: Reminiscences and Resolutions," will probably be understood only by those counselors who have experienced a similar situation. The transition from academic idealist to working realist is a sobering growth experience. The direction of growth—either downward to an unimaginative spot somewhere in the administration or upward to a vital, participating role in a changing system—depends on the individual's ability to continually evaluate what is going on during the transition period.

Self-awareness keeps taking front role in the whole process. For without constantly questioning "What am I about?" the road ahead becomes unclear with many detours. Also, it seems that the effectiveness of per-

sonal skills tends to rise or fall in proportion to the level of self-awareness.

Recognizing and attending to individual needs at all levels within the system and realizing that all needs must be considered is the first step in initiating positive change.

The word *manipulate* in Ponzo's definition of counseling is the only unsettling part of his fine article. The word can mean "to manage or utilize skillfully" or "to control or play upon by artful, unfair, or insidious means." But my apprehension is really not important. For I'm sure that Zander Ponzo would agree that the system will quickly communicate its understanding of the counselor's choice of definitions and that the counselor's direction of growth will continue accordingly—downward or upward.

JOSEPH R. VINCIG  
Heidelberg, Germany

### The End of Openness

And it came to pass that a client friend of mine entered graduate school in counselor education at another university. Over a year had passed when he telephoned me and told me the following story.

My friend's program had a philosophy of openness. Students were encouraged to share their struggles for personal and professional growth. In one of his courses, as part of a counseling demonstration, my friend shared his disappointment about not being accepted into a clinical psychology program and his mixed feelings about trying out a counselor education program.

Later in the quarter, my friend received a letter from the instructor of the course asking him to come in and discuss his feelings about the program. My friend welcomed this expression of personal concern and opportunity to share his feelings about the program.

My friend entered the meeting room expectantly. There he found himself facing the entire counselor education faculty! An instructor began by stating that the faculty was concerned about him and the way he fit into the program. This statement was followed by a question and then another question. The trial had begun.

Afterward, my friend went to the department chairman to try to understand what had happened. Nervously: "Was everything cleared up as a result of the meeting?" "Well,

# CHARLES C THOMAS • PUBLISHER

**MICROCOUNSELING: Innovations in Interviewing Training (3rd Ptg.)** by Allen E. Ivey, *Univ. of Massachusetts, Amherst.* Contribution by John R. Moreland. Foreword by Robert R. Carkhuff. The text describes a systematic approach to teaching interviewing skills which has been shown to be useful in training not only clinical and counseling psychologists, but also social workers, paraprofessionals and numerous other members of the helping professions. Microcounseling provides not only a vehicle for teaching skills, but also a structure upon which one can build his own concept of interviewing, counseling and therapy. '74, 228 pp., 1 il., 1 table, \$9.75

**COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY AND GUIDANCE: An Overview in Outline** by Jerome A. Kroth, *Ball State Univ., Muncie, Indiana.* Foundations in psychology are discussed representing the psychological core in most graduate programs, psychopathology, personality theory and the psychology of learning. The nature, development, organization and scope of guidance are included along with counseling theories and techniques, group processes and tests and measurements. The final section considers current special topical areas related to counseling. '73, 272 pp., 1 table, \$8.95

**CAREER GUIDANCE FOR YOUNG WOMEN: Considerations in Planning Professional Careers** edited by Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond,* and John G. Cull, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville.* (14 Contributors) This book was written by outstanding professional women for the purpose of offering advice to young women concerning various professional areas. Intended for young women earnestly seeking information on careers, its prime intent is to offer a practical, realistic approach to career guidance. '74, 224 pp., 7 tables, cloth-\$13.75, paper-\$8.95

**ADJUSTMENT TO WORK** edited by John G. Cull, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville,* and Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond.* (17 Contributors) The book begins with the meaning of work and covers the relationship between work adjustment and leisure adjustment, vocational evaluation and work adjustment as a future thrust in rehabilitation. Special problems of the mentally ill in adjustment to work, special problems of the disadvantaged and mentally retarded, the contribution of psychological evaluation to work adjustment, the contribution of group work, and theory and research in work adjustment are considered in detail. In essence this book makes use of a carefully solicited collection of writings. '73, 360 pp., \$16.75

**Organization and Administration of PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES** by Howard L. Blanchard, *Univ. of Northern Colorado, Greeley.* The importance of group work results as opposed to individual credit are among the topics found in this "idea" book. Students profit to the degree that each guidance team member is an artist in human relations. Students need to perceive interactions with others as positive, consistent and fair. The guidance team member will purify his philosophy of education as he considers the ten guidance services covered in this book. '74, 148 pp., 17 il., 5 tables, \$7.95

**CAREER COUNSELING IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE** by Charles Healy, *Univ. of California, Los Angeles.* Covered are such career tasks as choosing, problem solving, building esteem and managing time. Counseling procedures are described in detail so that counselors may apply them in a replicable manner to their own clients. The author describes one approach for achieving this replicability and shows how to employ the thirteen procedures. '74, 160 pp., 1 il., 7 tables, cloth-\$8.75, paper-\$5.95.

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there are some faculty members who are still concerned about you." "Concerned about what?" "Well, you'll have to talk to them individually about that."

Five students received similar letters, and five students were put on trial that day. Two students, it was said, broke down and wept under the stress of the questioning.

The news of the trials spread rapidly. Like silent thunder the whispered alarm was sent from student to student. For weeks afterward, students discussed the trials. The phony game-playing students told the open

ones about how naive they had been. The open ones believed them.

On the surface everything continued on as usual. But the atmosphere changed. Classroom discussions lost their spark. The department's hallowed philosophy of openness continued to be extolled by faculty and echoed back by students. But the hollowness of those words pounded into the ears of the sensitive ones like the beating of a bass drum.

JOHN L. SWANSON

Doctoral student, University of Florida  
Gainesville, Florida

## The Editor-Elect

The APGA Board of Directors has named Derald Sue as editor-elect of the *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, effective with the September 1975 issue

Derald Sue has served as a member of the P&G Editorial Board and as guest editor of our February 1973 Special Feature on Asian-Americans. At the age of 32 he has been a counselor, a college professor, a productive writer of quality articles, and a leader in organizations dealing with the development of Asian-Americans and, more particularly, Chinese-Americans.

He has many interesting ideas for the future, and I look forward with great enthusiasm to the new directions he will bring to P&G as the next editor. When these words come off the press, he will already have begun to participate in the decision process, since I will by that time have assembled the June 1975 issue. New manuscripts submitted from now on should be addressed to Derald Sue at the APGA address.—Leo Goldman, Editor.



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# Editorial

## INTERNATIONAL ARTICLES? YES, BUT WHAT KIND?

Victor Drapela's editorial in the fourth *Newsletter of the APGA Committee for International Education* begins with a question and answer: "Is APGA becoming more international in its orientation? There are indications that it is." Drapela goes on to cite the special international feature in the September 1974 issue of P&G as one example and the international programs in the 1975 APGA Convention as another.

We have for a long time wanted to include more international coverage in P&G. However, we receive very few manuscripts on international topics. And the ones we do receive usually are descriptions of counseling, guidance, and student personnel work in a foreign country, as seen by a resident of that country or by a visitor. In general, we have thought that such articles do not offer much to the general reader, although they may well have meaning and value to those who have a special interest in international matters, and especially to those who have lived or worked in the country being described.

Fortunately, we now have in print in P&G three examples of a kind of international article that we believe is of interest and value to many of our readers. The first one, by Scaff and Ting, appeared in April 1972 ("Fu Tao: Guidance in Taiwan Seeks a Value Orientation"). The second, by Esen, appeared in June 1972 ("A View of Guidance from Africa"). And the third, by Pulleyblank, was published in November 1974 ("Crossing Cultural Barriers: A View from Lagos").

What all those articles have in common, as I see it, is a "comparative" quality. That is, the authors devote their major efforts not merely to describing what exists in the foreign country or region but to providing a cross-cultural kind of study, a study that tries to answer the question: How are the differences between the counseling activities of these two or more countries related to the differences in the cultures and traditions and values of the countries? *That* kind of examination can be valuable to people in the countries involved and to others as well, because it offers insights into how we got to be the way we are and how our respective counseling and guidance concepts and activities relate to the societies in which they exist.

That was the kind of emphasis I suggested to the September feature's contributing authors. And, to some extent, that cross-cultural emphasis can be found in those of our Special Features and Special Issues over the past five years that were devoted to ethnic and racial groups in the United States. We have been fortunate during the present volume year in receiving some very good articles with an international flavor (Christensen on Puerto Rico in January and Drapela in this issue, in addition to the Pulleyblank article in November).

We need a great deal more understanding of ourselves and of other peoples; truly cross-cultural articles can contribute toward such understanding, and we would welcome more writing of that kind. ■ LG

# rethinking change in counseling

DAVID J. SREBALUS

David J. Srebalus is Associate Professor in the Department of Counseling and Guidance at West Virginia University in Morgantown and Clinical Associate Professor in the Department of Behavioral Medicine and Psychiatry at West Virginia University Medical School.

*The idea of change is one of the most fundamental concepts underlying practice in counseling and guidance. Yet the complexity of change, as it applies to people, is seldom examined in detail by the counseling practitioner. The author discusses the concept of change through its definition and looks at different forms of change, different change tempos, and the value of change for people. He concludes with a change position that attempts to identify the counselor not only as a change agent but also as a preservationist.*

While there are many different viewpoints about what constitutes effective counseling, one common conception in most systems is that counseling is a process that effects change in its recipients. Generally speaking, an entire guidance program is intended to produce behavioral change. Clients come to or are referred to a counselor because their life situation is unsatisfactory in some way; something must be eliminated, something must be increased or enhanced; in short, the client's present self or circumstances must be changed. This change is expected to be an improvement in what exists at present; in fact, effective counseling is presumed always to incorporate positive change.

The production of positive change in contrast to negative or no change is not merely some casual afterthought of counselors. Rather, the production of positive behavioral change seems to be necessary for the very existence of counseling and guidance programs. Increasingly, counselors are being asked to evaluate and certify the changes they produce. While this evaluation can be extremely valuable and rewarding, rarely do such evaluations indicate that counselors should be satisfied with what they have achieved. More often than not



it seems that counselors are told that they are not good enough change-producers; they cannot really feel good about themselves and their professional activities unless they continually produce more "results," more change.

With all the pressure in the helping professions to achieve more change, it would seem that at least some practitioners might get a little tense on just hearing the word *change*. Some counselors might accept the need for producing more change but, in attempting it, feel confused about some of its value and a little guilty about some of their tactics, which may seem manipulative or overbearing. Others may satisfy their own learned need to be changers by imagining, for example, that a few hundred or thousand words they said to a student really changed the student permanently and significantly. Such self-deceptive fantasizing might never have occurred if counselors' training had offered a more realistic and balanced understanding of just what kinds of changes actually occur in people. And counselors can distinguish many different forms of change, especially if they identify or formulate change over a period of time. For example, human growth and development represents change; developmental changes cannot be understood or really appreciated unless they are charted over a period of time.

The intent of this article is to look at change over time. The purpose is to offer some ideas about change that I see as being essential in a counselor's attempt to generate realistic expectations regarding client change or outcome. If counselors have more realistic expectations, they may also gain valuable byproducts; they may feel better about themselves, be less inclined to feel inadequate without cause, and treat clients more fairly or justly. The theme of this article, then, is change over time, but it also defines change; examines its tempo, or rate; and evaluates change in relation to no

change, especially in terms of counselor role and function.

## CHANGE DEFINED

Probably the most common conception of change in our culture relates to what philosophers and scientists have conceptualized as motion. Movement from one state of being to another is what we typically regard as change. If a high school student has been withdrawn or outside of peer activity and then begins to meet friends and go out with the opposite sex, we note movement in his or her social activity. We believe that the person has changed. It was the process of the person's becoming something different that constituted the change. The result of the becoming is a new state. The new state (as

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**"It seems that too many counselors feel impelled to conclude every client case with a happy ending. Such endings are common only in fairy tales."**

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in our student example, social interaction) may be permanent, or it may be only a momentary point in a continuing process of becoming something else and thus only one point in the change process.

## FORMS OF CHANGE

Change seems to be a fact of life. Living things, by definition, are animated; since they are continually in motion, living things continually change. Since people are alive, they would be expected to change, regardless of what other people—such as counselors—do to or with them.

The fact that a person continually changes complicates our understanding of the effect a counselor or a guidance

program might have had on any particular aspect of an observed change. It is virtually impossible to identify clearly when client change begins and when it ends. Counselors would be subject to strong ridicule if they ever seriously said, "See what these clients are and what they can do? Why, before they were involved in the guidance program they never behaved like that."

This raises a very significant question: If a counselor, through a relationship with a client, observes some "new" behaviors, attitudes, or feelings in the client, does this mean that the client has learned to express some completely new feelings, attitudes, or behaviors that never before existed? Or does it mean that the client has merely recaptured the essence of feelings, attitudes, or behaviors that existed before but for some reason had been lost? A follow-up question could be: Must behavior change be classified in either/or terms—either as completely new behavior or as recycled old behavior? Cannot both types of change take place—and even other different or varied forms of change? Obviously, the position taken here is that change can take place in many forms, and we can observe it as such if we look at it over time. For the moment it may be helpful to examine two forms of change: progressive linear change and circular, or repetitive, change. Both relate to counselor change efforts.

### **Progressive Linear Change**

The graduate education of counselors frequently emphasizes child development or developmental psychology. Several generations of counselors are familiar with descriptions of developmental changes as proposed by such significant theorists as Erikson (1950), Piaget (1954), and others. Much of this literature views development as epigenetic in nature, that is, as being marked by the progressive movement from one stage or state to another and by the fact that each

later stage incorporates and builds on earlier stages. Such views of human development may very well represent the idea of progressive linear change.

This view of progressive change seems to fit into the average counselor's view of clients. For example, many counselors work with children or adolescents, people who are considered psychologically immature and incomplete. Each year of education is viewed as adding to their formation as social and intellectual beings. So also in counseling, one attempts to assist in a person's development or in aspects of it that appear never to have been successfully treated before.

At first glance this view of change is very attractive, since we can always imagine things improving and people becoming more capable, no matter how satisfactory conditions may seem at present. No wonder counselors often tend to view desirable change as positive, progressive, linear change.

### **Circular Change**

But change in people does not always appear to be a steady movement toward perfection. In fact, if people have too strong a perfectionistic drive, they are considered irrational, compulsive, and in most cases at least a little neurotic (Ellis 1962; Salzman 1968), since people are far from perfect and cannot ever be perfect. A dominant theme in counseling is to have clients accept their limitations or imperfections. If clients can do this, they are less upset and, oddly enough, they develop greater self-esteem.

But why cannot people be perfect? The simplest answer is that they were never meant to be. It is far more important for any living organism to stay alive than to be perfect. And maybe it is more natural for every client seen by a counselor to just "get by" than to achieve some form of "excellence."

It is probably difficult for counselors to accept their helping clients "get by" as the general goal of their counseling ac-

tivities. After all, since at least the eighteenth century, Western civilization has been obsessed with the notion of "progress." While certain historians describe the rise and decline of particular civilizations, humanity in general is portrayed as highly progressive, especially in terms of technological achievements.

However, there is a difference between what can be said about collective

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**"There is absolutely no reason that we cannot redefine our work as being just as much concerned with preserving the way people behave as with changing the way people behave."**

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humanity and what can be said about individual people. When alone, people are much less adventurous and secure. Certainly counseling discloses this; in the safety of the counseling relationship clients often reveal the doubt and fear behind their facade of confidence and security. A counselor is in a good position to verify the anxiety people have about the unfamiliar. While life can be an adventure, the counselor, as one who has intimately known many people, can verify the fact that the lives of most people contain as much repetition as they do novelty. And this is not something people regret; it does not necessarily lead to boredom. People seem to love repetition. A popular record, for example, may sell several million copies because of its rhythm or its chorus, which is sung over and over again.

People may like repetition because they recognize that it is natural to life. Life does seem to offer a heavy dose of circular change. Mood changes follow cycles; physical stamina follows a cycle; even social interaction takes place in terms of cycles. It may very well be that

people have no choice about whether their motion or change will follow a straight or curved path. Cosmologists, people who study the universe as an orderly system, view all space as being curved and therefore all motion or change as proceeding along curving routes.

### **Implications for the Counselor**

The concerns of the cosmologist, however, are much more abstract than those of the counselor. The counselor must often view change in terms of immediate client outcome. How would understanding circular change affect this? Here are three examples of what this understanding would do for the counselor:

- Counselors would be less likely to promise something they could not deliver, especially in terms of permanent change not affected by cycles.
- Counselors would be less inclined to guarantee the stability of certain client outcomes which by nature are not stable and which change because the outcome is a point in a behavior cycle.
- Counselors would not feel bad and be unnecessarily apologetic to supervisors when client behaviors reverted back to earlier, more undesirable forms, understanding that the behavior was resuming its natural cycle.

It seems that too many counselors feel impelled to conclude every client case with a happy ending. Such endings are common only in fairy tales. But if a client was very upset or depressed upon first seeing a counselor and afterward was not upset or depressed, that is a significant outcome in itself. Because emotions and moods follow cycles, it is inevitable that a client whose emotional state has improved with the help of a counselor will in the future repeatedly experience tension or some other troublesome feeling. This does not in any way lessen the value



of the counselor's helping the client; physicians do their best to cure their patients, not for a moment thinking that a patient will never again be sick.

Accepting circular change as fact, one can imagine the role of the helper as that of increasing the speed with which a person passes through the negative part of the cycle and prolonging the positive part of the cycle. If people as individuals and social units can be helped to suffer less and enjoy life more, it would not be difficult to view them as having been significantly helped. Thus, helpful change is meaningful when seen in a temporal perspective.

### THE TEMPO OF CHANGE

When counselors examine the tempo of change, they have to deal with what can legitimately be considered natural and what should be considered unnatural to the situation. Does the counselor proceed in helping people to change by relying on the natural forces and resources in the client and in the counselor's relationship with the client? Or does the counselor act through the invention of some synthetic, unconventional process? If the process of helping people has evolved to the degree that the nature of change can be redefined through the invention of special technology, then the tempo of change can be modified and controlled by counselors. But are there limits to counselors' potential in controlling this tempo?

For example, if we look at the extreme in the tempo of change, we could imagine instantaneous change. But instantaneous change represents the commonly accepted definition of a miracle. And miracles are not considered natural but rather supernatural forms of change. If counselors need the opportunity to manipulate human change, do they also need to identify themselves eventually as miracle workers? If it is true that trouble results from people making

promises they cannot keep, counselors may be better off presenting themselves as human beings who want to be helpful rather than as potential miracle workers.

One of the most typical problems encountered in a change situation such as counseling is the coordination of the desired tempo of change among the people involved. It is not uncommon for the counselor to become impatient regarding the rate of change occurring in the client. One wonders if the counselor's use of such concepts as "resistance" and "unmotivation" are not merely attempts to deal with interpersonal discrepancies in change tempos rather than attempts to describe a common characterological flaw found in nonadaptive people. In many cases the "resistant" clients may be exercising an absolutely necessary degree of caution in planning for change because they recognize, at least subconsciously, the realistic consequences or repercussions of even small changes in their life styles.

In contemporary schools and colleges and other institutions, counselors are accountable to the whole student or patient or client body and its total development. This responsibility need not demand only quick change. Deliberate psychological education (Mosher & Sprinthall 1971), developmental counseling and guidance (Dinkmeyer & Caldwell 1970), and other contemporary approaches imply that counselors should consider individual differences in growth rates more seriously and use the "developmental mainstream," or natural forces, rather than redundantly create growth experience in the artificial environment of the counseling office. In other words, counselors should appreciate and encourage many different individual change rates rather than encourage a conformist rate—one that conforms to the counselor's desired rate of change and disregards client circumstances. As with other aspects of counselor behavior, a therapeutic approach to client change

tempo seems to demand sensitivity, respect, and understanding.

### A VALUE-LADEN ISSUE

The experience of change is inevitably accompanied by the individual's emotional responses to the change. At least since Darwin we have accepted the fact that people and other animals love novelty. It seems that there is even a conscious effort by humanity to keep things in flux. We positively value growth and development, while we dreadfully fear decline and death. The word *traditional* fares poorly in comparison to the word *innovative* in terms of human response to each.

At the same time, the concept of permanence seems to be more valued than the concept of transience. People seem to choose something of enduring quality rather than something of only passing significance, especially when a large investment is involved. And so many people interpret loving someone as meaning not wanting to change them, accepting them for what they are and not what they might be. Change is a value-laden issue; its form and degree are often governed by preference rather than by some objective criterion. Because of this, it may be very important for counselors to examine closely their own positions on change, to examine their clients' change values, and to recognize when they are inclined to impose their own change values on their clients.

### BALANCING CHANGE WITH PRESERVATION

Not only should we as individual counselors evaluate our change values, but also as a profession we need to reconsider our roles as change agents. This does not mean that we cease to help people by assisting them to change; it means we become more balanced, more realistic, more practical with regard to

the type and degree of change we expect. It would be unfortunate if, now and in the future, we had to be subject to the tyranny of change. Tyranny, in addition to being defined as a cruel and despotic government, is also defined as any severe condition or effect that allows no alternative. And if we think that we have not helped unless we have been instrumental in bringing about change, then perhaps change has become a tyrant.

There is absolutely no reason that we cannot redefine our work as being just as much concerned with preserving the way people behave as with changing the way people behave. In fact, counseling as practiced by those in the field has probably attempted to preserve more than it has attempted to change. If we accept preservation as part of our role, we might find that in certain situations the "best" change is the least change. Imagine a counselor asking a school principal or college dean, "What do you think of the report of our comprehensive evaluation of the guidance program?" and the principal or dean responding, "I was really gratified by it. It seems we gained some things, especially in terms of students' increased career awareness. But what's more important to me—and something we can't easily report—is that our students have managed to retain their feelings of satisfaction and regard for others in a time of cultural turmoil and disillusionment. Our students, by and large, are still a happy bunch of kids, and I imagine the guidance program has had something to do with it."

The psychology of adjustment has long advocated a state of equilibrium as a general goal for people who want to be happy. Equilibrium is a steady yet dynamic balance between opposing or divergent forces. After at least a decade of the counseling profession's strong emphasis on the notion of necessary, rapid, "progressive" change, it may be time to reaffirm the equilibrium between the dynamic forces of change and the

preservation that has always been part of helping relationships. Through the study of change, it can be seen that change can coexist in harmony with permanence. ■

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## Jargon

As the client you will be  
Probing, explaining, discussing, revealing,  
Catharting, cathecting, resisting, regressing,  
Defending, adjusting, transferring, and struggling.

As the counselor I will be  
Listening, supporting, reflecting, accepting,  
Questioning, confronting, understanding, analyzing,  
Clarifying, summarizing, interpreting, and empathizing.

Together we will both be  
Engaging, relating, exploring, and learning,  
Progressing, expressing, developing, and sharing.

Yet—behind all the jargon which defines our roles—  
Will you be able to let me know that you are hurting?  
Will I be able to let you know that I am caring?

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# vocational theories: direction to nowhere

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*There exists a literature about work that has been completely neglected by vocational psychologists and counselors. In this article the author discusses, in relation to vocational theory and career counseling, the implications of this literature, with its general conclusion that work for the great majority of people is not and never can be fulfilling.*

The perceptions of the world of work presented by a variety of writers who appear infrequently in the vocational psychology literature confront those in counseling with the possible unreality of current vocational theories—theories based on propositions and assumptions relevant for an ever-decreasing proportion of the American work force. These perceptions also confront some fundamental issues raised by those inside and outside the profession who view counselors in their social context as primary supporters of the status quo (Bond 1972; Halleck 1971; Stubbins 1970; Torrey 1974).

One basic assumption underlying the current vocational theories is populist in nature: that each individual, with adequate motivation, information, and guidance, can move through the educational process to satisfying job goals that allow him or her to express personality characteristics or implement self-concept. This assumption cannot be made unless one holds a prior assump-

tion that every job is capable of engaging the human qualities of an individual and that, in the Protestant tradition, each job has the potential of being a "calling." The vocational theorists have reinforced the concept that the job is the primary focus of a person's life. This may have been true during the years of the small farmer and the independent entrepreneur; but under present conditions, where almost all people work for organizations whose survival is dependent on generating profit and operating efficiently, the needs of the individual are subordinated to the goals of the organization.

## **WORKING CONDITIONS: IMPLICATIONS FOR SELF-FULFILLMENT**

The implementation of automation throughout the American work world raises questions about the logic of continuing to encourage people to believe that their jobs should be the central focus of their lives. The arguments over whether automation increases or de-

creases the number of jobs do not address themselves to the critical issue of whether the jobs created can carry the weight of importance consigned to work by vocational psychologists. A recent HEW report (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare 1973) has stated unequivocally: "It is illusory to believe that technology is opening new high-level jobs that are replacing low-level jobs. Most new jobs offer little in the way of 'career' mobility—lab technicians do not advance along a path and become doctors" (p. 20). And earlier in the report: "Many workers at all occupational levels feel locked-in, their job mobility blocked, the opportunity to grow lacking in their jobs, challenge missing from their tasks. . . . For some workers, their jobs can never be made satisfying, but only bearable at best" (pp. xvi-xvii). The findings of the HEW Special Task Force have been given added weight through interviews conducted by Terkel (1972) and Lasson (1972) with workers in a wide range of jobs.

Career development is an abstract construct. It permits vocational theorists to hypothesize about factors that appear to affect vocational decision making without regard for the quality of jobs in which people eventually find themselves. Although career development research may result in more efficient means of sorting people into vocational slots, the assumptions about personality expression and self-concept implementation in work on which this research is based may encourage workers to expect self-fulfillment in jobs that the modern industrial-bureaucratic work structure is not designed to meet. As Green (1968) has indicated: "Under the conditions of a society in which automation is fully exploited . . . such an understanding of work would constitute a cruel hoax" (p. 85).

Trends toward a reduced work week and part-time work also pose serious questions regarding the assumption that

jobs can serve as a major focus of personal fulfillment, as do the pressure toward early retirement and the shifting of middle-aged people out of jobs with which they have identified to jobs in which age is considered less damaging to the efficiency or public image of the organization. Older workers are becoming victims of the youth image and economic demands of a work system that has little sympathy for the needs of the individual.

## THE CHANGING NATURE OF WORK

The world of work in America has changed significantly over the past few decades. The proportion of people working on small, privately owned farms, working in rural areas, and working in small businesses is now relatively small in comparison to those working for administrators and managers in the bureaucracies of the large metropolitan centers. Job activities have been reduced to ever-smaller units of specialization. White-collar and professional workers have been organized into pools or teams, decisions about their work being made at some higher level of management. Academic credentials have been given added importance for entrance into jobs, while the complexity of those jobs has remained the same or actually been reduced. As Berg (1971) has stated: "The use of educational credentials as a screening device effectively consigns large numbers of people, especially young people, to a social limbo defined by low-skill, no-opportunity jobs in the 'peripheral labor market'" (p. 186). Berg's evaluation is echoed by the HEW report, which notes: "While new industries have appeared in recent decades that need a well-educated work force, most employers simply raised educational requirements without changing the nature of the jobs. . . . For a large number of jobs, education and job performance appear to be inversely related" (p. 135).

Holland (1973), in a recent book, has indicated: "The goal of vocational guidance—matching men and jobs—remains the same despite much talk, research, and speculation. Our devices, techniques, classifications and theories are more comprehensive than in the days of Parsons, the founder of vocational guidance, but the goal is still one of helping people find jobs that they can do well and that are fulfilling" (p. 85). There is no doubt that vocational guidance has remained steadfast in its goal of matching people and jobs, but it is problematic whether vocational counselors can claim that their matches have resulted in placing people in jobs that are "fulfilling." Observations from the field seem to indicate that personal fulfillment in jobs is more mythical than real for the great mass of workers. One would have to assume that Holland's reference to "fulfillment" is connected to the fact that

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**"The implementation of automation throughout the American work world raises questions about the logic of continuing to encourage people to believe that their jobs should be the central focus of their lives."**

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counselors administer and interpret tests that presumably permit some "fit" with the characteristics of persons already on the job. This appears to be a rather flimsy rack on which to hang a person's self-fulfillment.

Neither vocational theorists nor counselors have confronted the issue raised by writers such as Jenkins (1973), who has stated; "There is no question that work, and the image of work, has sunk badly—for blue-collar workers, for organization men, for contemptuous young people, for almost everyone. . . . One can almost conclude that the only

force keeping anyone at it is the mythology of the nobility of the thing, however distasteful it may be" (p. 16). The vocational theorists have ignored the growing number of writers who seriously question the myth of the meaningfulness of work in our industrial society. Those who write for a readership of counselors, as a matter of fact, appear to be the principal supporters of the myth, speaking for the status quo no matter how oppressive the working world may be to most individuals. "Even as adults, only a small percentage of Americans have the privilege of feeling that their work is essential or important" (Benet 1971 cited in Jenkins 1973, p. 54). That is the central issue, which vocational theorists and counselors have avoided. The world of work as they view it no longer exists.

### DECISION MAKING FOR WHAT?

Although holding a liberal attitude toward the development of human potential, vocational counselors and theorists have been conservative in their assumptions about the world of work. Their perspective has been fixed within a nineteenth-century model. Their efforts are devoted primarily to increasing the efficiency of matching people and jobs, which they humanistically translate as improving vocational decision making. Few ask the question, "Decision making for what?" despite the fact that, for an increasing number of workers, "Work comes to be less and less defined as a personal contribution and more and more as a role within a system of communication and social relations" (Touraine 1974, p. 185). The counseling literature, seemingly unrelated to the new realities of work for the great majority, reflects obsolete assumptions about work as a "calling," stripped of its religious connotations but nevertheless related to the internal imperatives of self-concept fulfillment, personality expression, and the like.



## RESPONSIBILITY AND POWERLESSNESS

Our society has become characterized by individuals' struggle for personal meaning and by their feelings of increasing powerlessness. If those who have studied the world of work are to be believed, the sense of meaninglessness and powerlessness is probably most intense on the job. As Green (1968) has put it: "We have learned to view work as the way in which a man defines for himself who he is and what he shall do with his life. The difficulty is, however, that today men must do this increasingly in a society that lists among its primary purposes the efficient production of goods and services rather than the celebration of human dignity. They have to undertake their self-definition in an environment that has purposes of its own and for that reason does not necessarily have room for individuals to express their own purposes" (p. 35).

Vocational psychologists have centered their theories of vocational decision making on the individual. They have assumed an open market, the dignity of all work, and, as Stubbins (1973) has put it, the person's "ability to operate free of environmental constraints. . . . The vocational psychologist operates in a world that economics and political science have long since discarded—a perspective that ignores the fact that the [person's] world has already taught him that socioeconomic status, racial origin, and power are more determinative than aptitude or interests" (p. 24). As leading advocates of populism and romantic individualism, vocational theorists have concentrated their attention almost exclusively on those characteristics of the individual that can be exploited in the individual's search for self-realization. This perspective has blinded them to the realities of the social forces swirling through the society in general and the world of work in particular. Vocational theorists and counselors ignore the fact

that, in the American work world, "What is wanted is not the person but the fulfillment of a function, not the human capacity for work but the human potential for labor" (Green 1968, p. 39).

With their attention focused on improving the efficiency of input to the work force, counselors appear to those outside the profession as not only the major supporters of the status quo but also the key to the entire educational credentialing system, which depends for its effectiveness on the counselor's assigned functions of guiding, selecting, and sorting. "In short, the role of the guidance counselor is strategic because of its importance in reinforcing the tendency to couch the language of teaching, schools and schooling increasingly in terms of output and product. . . . The fundamental work metaphor is strong: the school is a productive institution, its productive work is in the hands of

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**"Both vocational theorists and counselors are engaged in a basically amoral activity, operating on the premise that the working world is just and is guided by rational principles."**

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teachers, its quality control in the hands of the guidance staff" (Green 1968, p. 164).

## PERSONAL NEEDS VS. ORGANIZATIONAL NEEDS

Vocational theories are almost uniformly grounded on the proposition that jobs are intrinsically satisfying. The person need only find that job which offers an outlet for personal abilities, interests, values, and personality traits (Holland 1973; Super et al. 1957; Tiedeman & Schmidt 1970). That jobs

within the American economy are designed to meet the needs of production and profit or bureaucratic relationships and not to meet the personal needs of the people who fill those jobs has not been included as a contingency factor in the theoretical structures. Little attention has been paid to the fact that over the past few decades the power of individual workers in their work situations and their control over their work activities have been significantly diminished, although these are critical factors in the worker's ability to express personal characteristics.

This reduction of human expression in work is not restricted to the poorly trained or poorly educated; Denitch (1974) has commented, in regard to college graduates: "Whole generations trained to think in terms of societal issues are offered roles as powerless, if well-paid employees. Those with specific skills find their work compartmentalized and routinized. The shift in the authority of engineers and skilled scientists in industry also reduces them to a *new* highly-trained working class" (p. 176). But nowhere in the vocational theories is there even an allusion to the steady reduction of power and control in jobs at all levels of the American economy. "What dominates our type of society is not the internal contradictions of the various social systems but the contradictions between the needs of these social systems and the needs of individuals. This can be interpreted in moral terms, which has aroused scant sociological interest because there is nothing more confused than the defense of individualism against the social machinery" (Touraine 1974, p. 185).

Vocational theorists too have avoided the moral issues related to the individual's struggle with the social system of work. "There is considerable interest among the theorists in classifying, stratifying, compartmentalizing and, more recently, computerizing. While

purporting to have as its major purpose the facilitation of a person's educational-vocational planning, its effect is to stabilize the economic system by offering hope that there are reasonable logical paths through the maze of the occupational structure to the one best job that can make each individual happy and satisfied" (Warnath 1973, p. 16). Ostensibly, vocational counseling is a humanistic enterprise. Its theories, however, are designed to explain principles concerning the process of occupational decision making and vocational adjustment to the end that the individual's behavior might be predicted and controlled (Super 1957). These goals are softened by the humanistic affirmation of human potentials, which the theories—through their application by counselors—will presumably assist individuals to discover and exploit. Counselors have defined themselves as humanists on the basis of their stated purpose of helping clients make maximum use of their potentials through a process in which the counselor expresses personal qualities of warmth, empathy, and authenticity.

But neither theorists nor counselors come to grips with the conflict between the needs of the people who are the objects of their attention and the needs of the economic system—which are the needs that determine the operations of the world of work. On the contrary, the romantic individualism inherent in both theory and practice leaves the individual isolated and exposed by its proposition that the person alone is responsible for his or her fate, that only an unwillingness to be sufficiently motivated or to discover and use some unique talent stands in the way of the individual's finding a self-fulfilling work situation. Neither theorists nor counselors address themselves to the world of work as experienced by most workers—or, for that matter, to the contradiction pointed out by Aronowitz (1974) between the rising level of education of larger numbers of



workers and the increasingly restricted scope of their labor.

Both vocational theorists and counselors are engaged in a basically amoral activity, operating on the premise that the working world is just and is guided by rational principles in regard to those employed in work—despite the fact that the system within which those workers are engaged responds to factors quite unrelated to the welfare of the individual worker and can fulfill the needs of individuals only insofar as those needs support the needs of the organization.

### NEEDED: A NEW PERSPECTIVE

Touraine (1974) has pointed out that a new kind of society is being born; it can be called the programmed, or technocratic, society. This new society is served by vocational theorists and counselors whose perspectives of work are drawn from the past, causing their efforts at increasing the effectiveness of moving people into jobs to negate their professed humanistic concern for people.

The counselor continues to assume that vocational counseling can result in a match of the person with a satisfying job, but as Ferkiss (1970) has noted: "The myth of 'the happy worker' is still just that. Where the old centralized rigid processes have been automated with machines taking over routine tasks, working conditions, especially psychological ones, have not improved. Such evidence as exists indicates that the watchers of dials—the checkers and maintainers—are likely to be lonely, bored, and alienated, often feeling less the machine's master than its servant" (p. 123). And these feelings are not restricted to specific job categories or classifications. They are pervasive throughout the working world, not only among the lower level of jobs but extending up through the white-collar and managerial ranks. Their effects generalize, leading workers "to become 'stupid and ignor-

ant' not only on the job, but off as well" (Jenkins 1973, p. 40).

Braginsky and Braginsky (1974) have argued convincingly that psychologists, either unwittingly or as a means of self-preservation, operate within a framework of generally accepted cultural values that are encouraged and supported by those in power to ensure societal stability and their own dominant positions. In accordance with this concept, the prediction and control models used by psychologists are more for the benefit of those with power than for the benefit of the individual whose behavior is being predicted.

Counselors are positioned at the service delivery end of a chain of information, data, and how-to-do-it prescriptions generated by vocational psychologists. They have a direct involvement with the clients who come to them for assistance, and they carry the burden of responsibility for ensuring that their promises about the improvement of human welfare through counseling can be kept. With the values of society in flux, counselors must not only evaluate their own attitudes toward the concept of work as the major source of self-fulfillment; they must also test their attitudes against the experiences of workers in a variety of occupations. They need not be passive consumers of the products of academia. They can, through direct communication with the writers and theorists and through discussions within their professional groups, begin to raise questions about the assumptions on which vocational theorizing is based as well as about the perspectives through which conclusions and interpretations of research data are filtered.

Six years ago, Osipow (1969) suggested that perhaps vocational psychologists were not asking the "right" questions, that concern with vocational preference and selection might be of relevance for only a minority of the popula-



tion, and that we should be placing more emphasis on questions related to those factors in the work situation which encourage satisfaction and permit feelings of worth and human dignity. But beyond these considerations, counselors might begin considering a theoretical model or framework broader than the vocational choice or vocational development models, a theoretical model that is based on general human effectiveness and that does not require a fulfilling job as its core concept.

The connection between work and the confirmation of one's worth as a human being has been severed for the great majority of our population. Other disciplines are already engaging in a search for alternative means by which people can express their individuality and gain a sense of control over some significant parts of their lives. Counselors should be no less involved in this search. Because they are central to the life planning of millions of people, their responsibility for assisting in the search for means other than paid employment through which people can gain meaning from life is all the greater. ■

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## Reflections

In eyes  
    there is beauty  
        not found in words  
Soft  
    clear expressions  
        surrounded by light  
Slowly contracting  
    in the warmth of our days  
        and growing  
        in the depths of our nights  
Opening up new worlds before us  
    as vividly as a good camera lens  
        properly set and focused.  
Your eyes  
    find mine  
        sometimes in our sessions  
Looking  
    with you  
        into the future  
While  
    catching glimpses  
        of a darkened past  
        that blurs sometimes in a flash,  
Silently  
    you expose hidden feelings  
Through unspoken language  
    we share the moment  
Awed  
    by the power of sight and reflections  
        which will continue—clear  
        in our lasting memories  
        through fading years  
Like treasured pictures  
    carefully framed  
        firmly pressed  
        and preserved under glass.

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# counseling implications of recent research on women

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Most counselors are probably well aware of the growing concern for women and women's rights that has developed in American society over the last decade. One result of this concern has been the increasing amount of research on women, especially during the past few years. What counselors may be less aware of, however, are the results of this research and the implications of these findings for counseling. In a perceptive article dealing with the counseling of women, Pringle (1971) has called upon counselors to acquire some expertise with respect to the recent research on sex differences and the psychology of women. Accordingly, the purpose of this article is to survey some of the recent research on women and attempt to make some generalizations, based on the re-

*The growing concern for women and women's rights has been reflected in an increasing amount of research on women. As counselors may be unaware of the results of this research and its implications for counseling, the author surveys some of the recent investigations in four areas: counselor bias, demographic changes, sex differences, and sex-role stereotypes. After providing a review of the research in each area, she discusses implications of the findings. The author also makes specific suggestions for counselors who wish to confront some of the issues raised by recent research on women.*

search, that may be useful to the counseling practitioner.

## FOUR RESEARCH AREAS

### Counselor Bias

Although counselors are dedicated to the principle that they should serve each client's best interests, they may be unable to do so if they themselves are biased. And the results of several studies have shown that counselors do reflect a sexist bias in their counseling. Pietrofesa and Schlossberg (1970) found that both men and women practicum students showed negative bias toward a female client who was considering entering a nontraditional occupational field, and the same result was obtained by Thomas and Stewart (1971) in a study with secondary



school counselors. Research by Broverman and others (1970) found that clinicians considered traits characterizing healthy adults as more typical of men than of women, with female clinicians showing as much bias as their male counterparts.

There is also evidence that counseling style may be affected by the sex of the client, and this different treatment of male and female clients may have undesirable effects for the women. Parker (1967) demonstrated that male therapists tended to be more nondirective with females than with males, and Heilbrun (1970) found that dependent females tending to leave counseling prematurely showed a preference for more directive therapist responses. Thus, female clients who need a more directive approach may not receive it from male counselors and, as a consequence, may leave counseling too soon.

A related bias issue is counselors' use of sex-stereotyped tests and occupational information. Tests such as the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) and the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey have been viewed as biased, since they provide a more restricted range of occupations for women than for men (Tittle 1974). Further, career information commonly used by counselors has been shown to reflect the sex stereotyping in the world of work (Birk, Cooper & Tanney 1973). Not only are counselors biased, then, but also the materials they use fail to represent the full range of options that are becoming increasingly available to women.

Given that research has shown bias to exist among counselors themselves, what are the implications of the results of these studies? Certainly, counselors must guard against the tendency to consider women's nontraditional career choices unwise and the tendency to perceive as appropriate for women traits that are psychologically unhealthy. Male counselors in particular must monitor their

counseling in order to be sure they are not treating clients differently on the basis of sex instead of treating each client on the basis of that client's needs. In addition, counselors can strive to find and use tests and career information that are more useful for women clients. The Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII), which has been described by Campbell (1973), is an example of a more appropriate test. Crites' Career Maturity Inventory (CMI) is another recently published instrument that was designed to eliminate sex bias (Crites 1973). The items on the Attitude Scale of the CMI are equally applicable to either sex, and the vignettes contained in the CMI Competence Test describe young women with nontraditional interests and career aspirations.

### Demographic Changes

A number of well-documented demographic changes that have occurred in recent years will have a significant effect on the lives of American women. Westervelt (1973), in her discussion of the psychological effects of feminism on educated women, has summarized some of these trends: Both the percentage of unmarried women from 20 to 24 and the average age of marriage are increasing rapidly. At the same time, the birth rate is falling (1971 had the lowest rate since 1820), with the fertility rate of women from 14 to 55 at its lowest point since 1940. In addition, the number of women over 30 who are enrolled in higher education courses has doubled during the past 10 years, and the number of women in the work force has also increased. A recent government publication (U.S. Department of Labor 1973) reported that the percentage of married women in the labor force continues to rise, with 42.2 percent of such women now working. Interestingly, almost all the women representing this increase are under the age of 35, and many are mothers of preschool children.

It would appear, then, that increasing numbers of women are remaining single longer, having fewer children, working when their children are very young, and returning to school or work as their family responsibilities ease. Trends such as these suggest the vital importance of better career guidance for younger women and the need to provide counseling for older women who wish to continue their education or reenter the work force.

### Sex Differences

It is generally agreed that differences between males and females exist, these differences ranging from differences in activity level and skin conductance in newborns to behavioral differences in aggression and dependency in children and adults (Bardwick 1971; Mussen, Conger & Kagan 1969). Motivational differences related to sex would seem to have the most importance for counselors, with achievement motivation of primary concern.

Although achievement motivation has been extensively studied, the theory that has been developed to explain it has been based primarily on data about males; and the theory has proved not to apply very well to females (Stein & Bailey 1973). To begin with, the pattern of achievement behavior for women is different: Girls tend to achieve well in the early school years, but many of them demonstrate lowered achievement-striving in adolescence. The reverse pattern is typically displayed by boys (Bardwick 1971; Stein & Bailey 1973). The usual interpretation of this phenomenon is that the adolescent girl perceives achievement as a threat to her femininity and consequently reduces her achievement efforts in order not to jeopardize her social success. Stein and Bailey have summarized studies emphasizing the importance of affiliation rather than achievement in the lives of females. These authors have suggested, however,

that women may merely shift their achievement efforts from academic and career areas to the social arena. Such explanations are, to a certain extent, speculative, and it will remain for future research to clarify the issue.

An aspect of female achievement motivation that has generated a great deal of research since the completion of Matina Horner's doctoral dissertation is the concept of fear of success. Horner (1970, 1972) has suggested that the normal achievement strivings of women can be inhibited by the expectation that success will be followed by negative consequences because high levels of achievement are not considered appropriate for females. The price of academic or career success, therefore, might be social failure. On the basis of her own and other research, Horner (1972) has concluded that many young women who are faced with a conflict between their need for achievement and their female image will conform to the sex-role stereotype. Unfortunately, such an adjustment may result in negative emotional consequences for the individual as well as deprive society of a valuable human resource. An unpublished study by Watson (1970), for example, reported a significant relationship between fear of success and self-reported drug use.

Another facet of female achievement behavior on which there has been speculation, and also some research to support it, concerns a possible cyclical pattern in achievement motivation in women. Baruch (1967) found that among her subjects, who had formerly been college students, there was an increase in achievement motivation 10 to 15 years after their marriage. It has been suggested that such data show the importance of the need for affiliation rather than for achievement; that is, the need for achievement is suppressed during the periods of early marriage and child-rearing and reemerges later in life,



when the affiliative needs have been satisfied (Bardwick 1971).

What, then, are the implications of the research on sex differences? First of all, such differences do exist. Denying that there are differences and therefore treating male and female clients exactly alike does not take into consideration the individual differences among clients, some of which differences are related to sex. Boys tend to underachieve in early childhood, girls later on. Counselors have shown great concern for male underachievement and virtually none for that of females. Presumably, the female pattern is due to the girls' perception of achievement as being incongruent with their femininity; this potential conflict might well be explored with female clients. In addition, achievement motivation may follow a cyclical pattern for females, with its lowest point occurring during the periods of early marriage and child-rearing. The client's life stage should thus be taken into consideration.

### **Sex-Role Stereotypes**

Closely related to the investigation of sex differences is the research on sex-role stereotypes. Several researchers have investigated the relationship of various needs or characteristics to sex, and their studies have shown that such variables are frequently seen to cluster in masculine and feminine groups, the masculine trait generally the more highly valued (Broverman et al. 1972; Stein & Smithells 1969). It has also been shown that such stereotyping is learned early, increases with age, and holds true for both sexes as well as across socioeconomic levels and religious affiliations (Broverman et al. 1972; Schlossberg & Goodman 1972; Stein & Smithells 1969).

Because the male stereotype tends to be regarded more positively than the female stereotype, it is not surprising that research has shown women to have more negative self-concepts than men (Broverman et al. 1972). The Brover-

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mans and their colleagues also found that the more children a mother has, the more negative her self-concept. Another study reported by the same authors showed that female college students who viewed themselves as competent planned on having smaller families than did college women who perceived themselves as relatively less competent. Thus, it seems that self-concept affects the size of the family rather than the other way around, more favorable self-concepts being associated with smaller families.

That women who view themselves in nontraditional ways are psychologically healthier than their more traditional sisters has been supported by some of the career orientation research. Helson (1972) has presented, from several recent studies, evidence that refutes the older view that a career is a frustration outlet for women and that career women are less well adjusted than noncareer women. Helson has also presented some criticism of older research, which supposedly indicated the deviance of career-oriented women, and she has concluded that the interpretations of the data from some of the older studies were biased. Several authors (Bardwick 1971; Broverman et al. 1972; Mednick & Tangri 1972) have pointed out that career-oriented women do not necessarily reject the feminine role; instead, they think in terms of a dual role—marriage plus a career commitment. In fact, Rand and Miller (1972) have suggested that a new



cultural imperative of marriage plus career may replace the previous homemaking-only convention.

There has been some concern that the dual role will generate a career-marriage conflict. Farmer and Bohn (1970) have reported a study in which instructions designed to reduce the home-career conflict did in fact result in higher scores on career scales and lower scores on homemaking scales of the SVIB. Vetter (1973) has concluded, on the basis of this study and other data, that the level of career interest in women would rise if the home-career conflict could be reduced. Suniewick (1971), in a discussion of the implications of female career research, has concluded that women face conflicts between career and marriage and that they are not, at present, being helped to resolve these conflicts. Steinmann (1966) and Bardwick (1971) have also cautioned that young women planning to combine work and families tend to be unaware of the problems involved. One complication for counseling stems from the finding that future career commitment in women cannot be predicted at age 18 (Harmon 1970). This fact alone gives counseling for women a different aspect from counseling for men, most of whom expect to be rather continuously involved in the world of work.

It may be that the career-marriage conflict issue will be clarified by the findings of ongoing and future career research. Until recently, career development theory and research have been based almost exclusively on data about males. The study of female careers, as Crites (1969) has described it, was long "a largely neglected area of research." This neglect is now being remedied, but as yet there has been no systematic attempt to incorporate the research findings into a theoretical framework that will be useful for counseling practice (Levitt 1971).

In considering stereotypes, it should

be kept in mind that the demographic changes relating to marriage and childbearing, the effects of affirmative action programs, and the general impact of the feminist movement may all be influential in altering sex roles in American society. Although a change in sex roles may be taking place, Broverman and others (1972) have concluded, on the basis of their research and that of others, that well-defined sex-role stereotypes still exist. There is some evidence, however, that changes have occurred. Wilson (1971) reported that female college students are perceiving women's roles as less traditional and more liberal with regard to occupational equality. Astin and Bisconti (1973), who compared women college graduates of 1965 and 1970, reported data suggesting that college women were less inclined to shift into teaching and more apt to transfer into business.

The research on sex roles suggests important considerations for counseling. To begin with, the counselor must recognize what the current sex-role stereotypes are and that changes in sex roles can be expected. As with many social shifts, clients may feel uncomfortable about these changes, and male as well as female clients can experience conflict because of them. Women in particular may need help in resolving career-marriage conflicts, and younger women may not be able to assess potential difficulties in a realistic manner. On the other hand, research results have indicated that women who see themselves in less traditional roles tend to be psychologically healthier than women who accept the sex-role stereotype. If having children is an important source of self-esteem for women, as Bardwick (1971) has suggested, then an era of population pressures will force women to seek alternatives for personal satisfaction. It is possible that one means to this end may lie in career involvement and satisfaction.

## SUGGESTIONS FOR COUNSELORS

During the past few years, a considerable amount of effort has been expended on research related to women. In this article I have reviewed some research findings that appear to have implications for counseling, and I offer the following suggestions for counselors who wish to increase their sensitivity to issues raised by recent research on women.

*Be aware of the necessity for dealing with the bias issue in counseling—in yourself, in others, and in the materials you use.* Awareness of bias is not sufficient, for it must be accompanied by constant monitoring and corrective action. Note, for example, how you react to a client who expresses a nontraditional career choice. Do you subtly—or not so subtly—discourage her? And what about the client who does not express a nontraditional choice when test and interview data indicate that such a career would be realistic for her? Do you explore her reasons for not making a nontraditional choice and suggest a

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**"Sex-role stereotyping is learned early, increases with age, and holds true for both sexes as well as across socioeconomic levels and religious affiliations."**

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wider array of options as possibilities? You can also make an effort to use less sex-biased materials. Some of the newer instruments, such as those described earlier in this article, can be used in testing. In addition, you can search for career information that will expand rather than restrict women's horizons.

*Emphasize career counseling for women, within a life-planning context, taking into consideration the developmental stages involved.* It is important that career coun-

seling for all clients, and especially women, be related to their overall life plans. It is too narrow an approach to emphasize the content of a career choice (i.e., the specific occupation chosen) and neglect either the process involved in making that choice or the articulation of career choices from one developmental stage to another. It is essential that women clients consider a much wider range of careers, including nontraditional ones; and there is a great need for career-related issues to be addressed much earlier in a woman's life. Additional emphasis is particularly needed at earlier developmental stages, such as in the elementary school and at the junior high level. More effort should be expended in helping the mature woman organize (or reorganize) her life at the stage when her family responsibilities have diminished or she is forced by death or divorce to reshape her life.

*Work with men, as well as women, in order that the men may understand the changes that are occurring and their role in helping both themselves and the women in their lives come to terms with these changes.* In individual counseling, explore with male clients how marriage and family plans fit into their lives, and help them assess their willingness to assist "dual role" wives. In groups of men and women, whether the emphasis is on career exploration or on self-awareness, discuss in specific terms the impact societal change will have on their present and future lives. Again, these considerations are appropriate at all levels of counseling—for elementary, junior high, senior high, college, and mature clients.

*Keep informed of the research and other literature pertaining to women.* As more data are accumulated, areas relating to female psychology and career development should become defined more clearly, with guidelines emerging for counseling practice. Look especially for review articles and to special issues of the journals; these are particularly helpful in

summarizing data from many sources. The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, the *Journal of Social Issues*, and the *Counseling Psychologist* have already devoted specific issues to women, and there undoubtedly will be more of this sort of thing in these and other publications. Books such as Lewis' *Developing Women's Potential* (1968) and Bullough's *The Subordinate Sex* (1973) are also useful for providing background material and counseling suggestions as well as for assigned readings for women's courses.

*Where feasible, engage in appropriate action that will help women.* Your counseling setting may determine, in large part, how you can be most effective. Some possibilities for action are:

- *Establishing superior child care facilities.* Most women are understandably reluctant to return to work or school when adequate day care is not available for their children. Counselors could make some of their greatest contributions to the welfare of women by helping establish such facilities.

- *Expanding opportunities for part-time employment and part-time study for women with family responsibilities.* Part-time study or work presents a difficult situation at the present time, since there is a plentiful demand for full-time slots. Yet if women are to have the opportunity to achieve their potential, the provision of part-time opportunities is imperative.

- *Broadening the scope of educational and sports activities.* All courses and sports should be open to both sexes. Some high schools do not permit, much less encourage, boys to enroll in home economics classes or girls to take industrial arts courses. Counselors can be effective in helping to implement such curriculum changes.

- *Helping placement offices combat discrimination in interviewing and hiring women.* Although employers have become increasingly sensitive to the need

for eliminating sex bias in their hiring and promotion policies, some still do engage in discriminatory practices. Such instances should be immediately reported to the placement office director. After investigating the complaint, most placement offices will bring the matter to the attention of the organization concerned and, if the situation is not corrected, deny the company the privilege of recruiting.

- *Increasing the scope of counselor education.* Possibilities here include developing awareness of women's issues among counselor trainees through course work and group experiences, providing female supervisors for male trainees, and stressing the use of unbiased tests and other counseling materials. Schlossberg and Pietrofesa (1973) have outlined a training model that might well be considered by counselor educators.

These suggestions are not meant to exhaust the possibilities for a counselor who wishes to confront some of the issues raised by recent research on women. They are offered merely to help stimulate your thinking about what you, as a counselor, can do. ■

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Although the guidance profession works for better communication among people—no matter what their cultural background—there has been an obvious lack of international involvement in our ranks. While other professions, such as psychology, sociology, and anthropology, have long recognized the need for comparative studies, research in comparative guidance has been a rarity.

Since comparative studies deal with parallels and contrasts, they are usually cross-cultural or international in scope. In these terms, guidance is perceived as a worldwide professional endeavor that contains some elements common to virtually all cultures, while its structures and services differ significantly from one country to another. From the American point of view, comparative guidance studies address themselves primarily to the assessment of parallels and contrasts between professional work in this country and abroad.

In the past decade, American counselors have been very busy catching up with new developments on the domestic scene. Some may feel that learning about guidance in other countries serves no real purpose and in fact tends to complicate their professional outlook. As a result, comparative guidance studies and fact-finding trips abroad are often dismissed as esoteric projects, potentially useful for writers of dissertations but of little value for the practicing counselor.

Obviously, comparative guidance is no panacea. In rare cases it could be an avoidance mechanism used by some counselors to escape the challenges of their own professional territory. Viewed in proper perspective, however, comparative guidance can be of great value not only for researchers, but also for counseling practitioners. This article contains a few practical suggestions on how counselors can use comparative guidance projects for their personal enrichment and for greater professional effectiveness.

# comparative guidance through international study

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*In the contemporary world of instant communication, which creates parallel trends in diverse cultures, comparative guidance studies have acquired a new importance. They promote a higher degree of cross-cultural openness and sensitivity, at the same time stimulating clarification of values. Here the author reviews earlier publications on comparative guidance and presents examples of new insights into guidance practices that can be gained through international studies. He offers suggestions on planning professional travel abroad and on including comparative guidance studies in existing counselor training programs.*

## LESSONS FROM THE PAST

In its early stages, the guidance movement in this country had a distinctly intercultural flavor. American society of the Parsonian era was a fairly loose aggregate of many cultures and life styles. Immigrants were entering the country in large numbers. Many of them settled in ethnic enclaves, where they hoped to maintain their former national traditions while helping each other cope with the threatening environment. This was the situation encountered by American guidance pioneers at the beginning of this century. As a philanthropic service, the guidance movement soon began dealing with vocational problems of disadvantaged young people, many of them recent immigrants who had a poor command of the English language.

Frank Parsons recognized the need for establishing close ties with people who were involved in vocational guidance in other countries. He did extensive research on social patterns in New Zealand, and he traveled to Europe in order to share his experiences and get ideas from like-minded people abroad (Davis 1969).

Unfortunately, the two world wars, and especially the trauma of the Great Depression in the 1930s, acted as powerful blocks to international cooperation in guidance. Preoccupation with domestic problems brought about an isolationist attitude in the ranks of American counselors. Later, when guidance in American schools developed into a vast and sophisticated system, most counselors, including some who spoke for the profession, felt that there was little to be learned from the less developed guidance efforts abroad.

As a result, there was no systematic dialogue between American and foreign guidance professionals for many years. In 1951 UNESCO helped establish the International Association of Educational and Vocational Guidance (IAEVG), with

headquarters in Luxembourg; and APGA became, for a time, its corporate member. Professional contacts between various countries became more numerous. Since 1966 many European and some American counselors have participated in professional workshops held in various European countries (the most recent one in Cambridge, England, in 1974) under the sponsorship of the International Roundtable for the Advancement of Counseling. At present the National Vocational Guidance Association is representing American counselors internationally through its linkage with IAEVG, while APGA has formed its own Committee for International Education.

In recent years American guidance literature has shown an increasing awareness of the international scene. Several articles have appeared on widely different professional issues abroad, ranging from Latin America (Espin & Renner 1974) to Eastern Europe (Drapela 1971), Africa (Esen 1972; Wrenn 1972), and the Far East (Scaff & Ting 1972). International programs have become a regular feature at APGA national conventions, and the planners of this year's APGA convention in New York intend to give additional emphasis to this trend.

## WHY GET INVOLVED?

There are several valid reasons that the guidance profession ought to be interested in comparative studies. Since counselors deal with clients of various backgrounds, they have to be attuned to many human concerns and open to new ideas and behavior patterns. Cultural isolation and provincial mentality are serious professional handicaps. As counselors widen the repertoire of their experiences in various occupational and cultural settings, they acquire a broad outlook on life in the contemporary world. New social movements in this country can be better understood if one



is aware of similar trends in other countries. The rapid exchange of information among continents tends to stimulate parallel developments in even highly divergent societies.

### Global Interdependence

The extended social unrest of the 1960s shattered the long-standing myth of a unitary "American way of life" and led to the emergence of a new morality based on the individual's conscience rather than conformity to rules or respect for authority (Hampden-Turner & Whitten 1971). Significant parallels occurred during that same period in Western Europe, especially in France, and in the Soviet Bloc, particularly in Czechoslovakia (Drapela 1971).

The 1970s seem to confront us with another social development that is worldwide by its very nature. Having gained a greater freedom from traditional social values at home, we are discovering a new dependence (or interdependence) involving the entire human race. Events in one part of the globe have a profound influence on the life of people elsewhere. In terms of attitudes, social trends, and resources management we find ourselves in a global unity—for better or worse. The recent energy crisis has made this point clear in a dramatic fashion.

Under such circumstances, responsible guidance workers cannot retreat into their local cocoons and ignore the rest of the world. It is likely that the job market of the future will disregard national boundaries and require a degree of international employment coordination—a pattern that has proven quite useful in Europe. For instance, the highly industrialized German Federal Republic has its labor recruitment offices and vocational guidance personnel in eight other countries, including Portugal, Turkey, and Morocco (Bundesanstalt für Arbeit 1972).

### Borrowing from Others

The P&G JOURNAL recently published a collection of articles entitled "Guidance U.S.A.: Views from Abroad." It contains views and comments of colleagues from nine countries, people who had become acquainted with American guidance during extended visits to the United States. The potential value of foreign visitors as resource persons has at times been overlooked. Since many of them come here to study and thus assume the role of learners, we may forget that they are also qualified information givers. In his introduction to these articles, Goldman (1974) stated two reasons for having published them: to enable us to see ourselves as others do and to help us become aware of similarities and differences between our own values and customs and those of other countries. The eleven articles range from expressions of open admiration for American guidance (Avent 1974) to frank criticism of the U.S. scene (Ziv 1974). The visitors have provided refreshing perspectives on our professional work along with some information on guidance in their countries.

Following are two specific illustrations of new ideas and insights that can be gained through comparative studies, the first dealing with equality of the sexes and the second with coordinated vocational guidance. These ideas happen to be from countries not represented in the Goldman survey.

*Equality of the Sexes.* It is well known that for generations American society discriminated against women in the labor market. Hansen (1972) has pointed out that "we need to find ways to encourage women to explore their needs, drives, commitments, preferences, and potentials in relation to a variety of possible life styles" (p. 89).

A few comparative data indicate that we can learn much from the Soviet Bloc countries about vocational equality of

women. In the U.S.S.R., for instance, approximately 75 percent of the physicians are female (Mace & Mace 1964), as compared to about 10 percent in the U.S. Moreover, female students in Soviet medical schools have a higher grade point average than their male counterparts (Gromov et al. 1969). Even such typical "male" professions as engineering, metallurgy, and agronomy are wide open to women in socialist society. The problem of reconciling a woman's professional role with her role as a mother has been attacked—although not solved—through the establishment of numerous child care centers and through legislation guaranteeing the woman's job and pay during pregnancy and after childbirth. In Czechoslovakia the paid maternity leave lasts for 26 weeks (Hečko 1974). Equality of the sexes in socialist society has resulted in part from the leadership roles girls are frequently assigned in school. Since they are rather dependable, girls often serve as "monitors" or "sanitarians," enforcing proper behavior and cleanliness of their peers in the classroom.

*Coordinated Vocational Guidance.* Another useful idea of a different kind can be found in the vocational guidance system of West Germany. Counselors there are not directly associated with schools but operate through a network of governmental employment offices, which are centrally coordinated from the Federal Institute of Labor.

The basic approach of the West German guidance system is best described as vocational guidance by correspondence. Every potential graduate in the secondary school is given a booklet, *Scheckheft zur Berufswahl* [Book of Coupons for Vocational Choice], which contains coupons for free guidance services along with appropriate information on how to use them. The ensuing vocational choice is to be the combined outcome of extensive homework by the student and his or her interview with the vocational coun-

selor. The student has to take the initiative of mailing out the coupons, which are printed in the form of preaddressed postcards. One of the coupons is a request for an 86-page spiral-bound booklet called *Step*, a comprehensive workbook for the student's self-appraisal. The questionnaire-type inventory helps students assess their aptitudes, interests, personality characteristics, and values. It also makes them aware of the degree of their attachment to a particular geographical area and of sex-related and socioeconomic factors involved in their vocational preferences. Other factors considered are their willingness to take risks and to defer financial rewards. The second coupon to be mailed is a request for a maximum of three information

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**"Events in one part of the globe have a profound influence on the life of people elsewhere. Responsible guidance workers cannot retreat into their local cocoons and ignore the rest of the world."**

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monographs on selected occupational areas for home study, and the third coupon is a request to be interviewed by a vocational guidance counselor. Such interviews are scheduled within commuting distance from the community in which the school is located.

While most comparative guidance data will provide useful insights, our learning from them can be both positive and negative: "Lessons from foreign study might serve as cautionary tales. They could as well indicate dangers to be avoided as models to be emulated" (Noah & Eckstein 1969, p. 19). Our professional borrowing from other countries should be selective.



## Values Clarification

Another tangible outcome of comparative guidance is related to the present trend toward values clarification. When we study in depth a relatively different mode of life, we get a far better idea of our values and clarify our own professional commitments. At times we are so preoccupied with the pragmatic, day-to-day routine of our work that we forget its meaning and come close to being technicians rather than professionals.

The study of various ideologies, cultural traditions, and guidance models also helps us discover many positive features within other cultures and clarifies the rationale of behaviors that in the past seemed less than warranted. We learn to look at other cultures and national character patterns according to their

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**"When we study in depth a relatively different mode of life, we get a far better idea of our values and clarify our own professional commitments."**

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own frame of reference rather than evaluate them exclusively in terms of our own biases. This increases our intercultural awareness and tolerance of ethical pluralism, and it forges an open attitude toward various subcultures and unorthodox value structures in our society.

The need for more cross-cultural sensitivity and openness in order to combat racism has been amply demonstrated in recent years, especially by members of the black community. Recently, smaller ethnic groups have reminded the white majority of subtle types of discrimination that had been largely overlooked in the past. For instance, members of the Asian-American community, known as the "most silent minority" (Sue 1973), seem to suffer not only from intentional rejection but also from well-meant ac-

tions of culturally ignorant people, including teachers and counselors. Stereotyped ideas about students of Asian origin predominate in many Anglo-Saxon schools, with the result that these students become frustrated and eventually alienated (Watanabe 1973).

## HOW TO GET INVOLVED

There are various ways for a counselor to become interested in comparative guidance. An article on educational methods in some foreign country may be the initial stimulus. Or the counselor may decide to go on a vacation trip abroad and spend part of the time visiting schools or employment agencies rather than sightseeing from dawn to dusk. The suggestions offered in the following paragraphs are based on my own experiences.

### Acquiring Information in Advance

Before leaving on a trip, the counselor should acquire some rudimentary knowledge of the life style, culture, social system, education, and guidance in the country he or she plans to visit. In some countries guidance services are fairly well established and organized. However, even in geographical areas where no formal guidance organization exists, there are many established patterns and customs in family, school, or religious life that contain basic elements of guidance. Young people are aided to develop socially, to form their value structure, to plan their education, and to prepare for a career. The process of socialization is the result of many informal guidance efforts that operate in every society, from the most primitive to the most advanced. Many languages recognize the difference between instruction and counseling or guidance, such as the German terms *Unterricht* (teaching), *Beratung* (advising, counseling), and *Erziehung* (value-related upbringing).

All guidance efforts have something in



common and are functionally related. They intend to help young people come to terms with society and make the best of their lives within their culture. However, coming to terms with society means one thing in this country and something else in the collectivist milieu of the Soviet Bloc or in the "machismo"-oriented culture of Latin America. Such comparative data point out the contrasts in guidance approaches.

### **Professional Contacts Abroad**

Prior to departure, the counselor should inquire about the possibility of meeting with guidance professionals in the foreign country he or she is planning to visit. Addresses of professional colleagues abroad can be obtained through the IAEVG, the APGA Committee for International Education, or the APGA International Clearinghouse (addresses are listed at the end of this article). The counselor then should write letters of introduction to identify his or her professional status and work, describe whether traveling alone or in a group, and give dates of arrival and departure. The counselor should be specific (but flexible) as to places he or she wishes to visit—elementary or secondary schools, vocational agencies, remedial clinics, and so on. It is well to remember that job descriptions and titles of workers in the helping professions vary from country to country. For instance, counterparts of our guidance counselors are often called school psychologists.

I would recommend writing the letters of introduction at least six weeks prior to departure from the States. This will allow foreign colleagues enough time to make the necessary arrangements for a meaningful program and to send back a reply confirming the local arrangements. If one wishes to use expenses of the professional part of the trip as an income tax deduction, the correspondence about the trip should be kept for documentation in case of an IRS audit.

I have found foreign colleagues to be quite interested in contacts with American guidance workers. They welcome informal rap sessions and are anxious to explain their work situations. Since guidance always expresses specific values and traditions of a particular country, its rationale and structure vary from one country to another. An American counselor who remembers this while discussing the relative merits of various guidance systems will find most foreign colleagues very hospitable.

### **COMPARATIVE GUIDANCE AS GRADUATE STUDY**

We cannot expect much international cooperation from practitioners whose professional training was totally devoid of comparative guidance studies. Attitudinal prerequisites for international guidance contacts have to be created through our graduate curriculums.

There are various ways of incorporating comparative guidance into an existing counselor training program. Below is a brief report on a pilot project at the University of South Florida, where comparative guidance is being offered as an elective in the master's curriculum of counselor education. Since 1970 the course has been offered on campus every year—and twice during the summer quarter as a supervised field study in Great Britain.

The learning experiences include lectures, visual aid presentations, seminar-type discussions, and individual research projects. All students are required to analyze and abstract a number of primary sources, journal articles, monographs, and books of foreign origin, and they share this information with their classmates. Role playing is used to make the students feel the impact of a foreign culture.

Our approach to comparative guidance studies resembles the methodology of Bereday (1964). "Hard" data in the

form of documented statistical surveys are combined with "soft" data on the cultural attitudes, values, and ethnic characteristics that have molded a country's system of guidance services. When we juxtapose the foreign guidance model and our own, we are able to identify parallels and contrasts, evaluate the foreign model according to its own standards, and identify its strengths and weaknesses from our point of view. We then may decide whether some of its features are applicable to our own work and, in so doing, clarify our professional commitments.

Feedback from students who have completed the course has provided two types of evaluative data. The university-required evaluation has rated the course above the college median in terms of difficulty, required student effort, interest level of subject matter, and student willingness to recommend the course to other students. Additional informal feedback has indicated specific gains by students in these areas: (a) more realism in viewing foreign life styles and guidance approaches, (b) appreciation of and interest in diverse value structures, (c) discovery of some unexpected similarities between American and foreign social patterns and identification of parallel social problems, and (d) increased objectivity about the strengths and weaknesses of American education and guidance.

## CONCLUSION

Comparative guidance should certainly not replace any valid component of an existing counselor education curriculum or guidance practice. Instead it should broaden our professional outlook, make our work more meaningful, and render the guidance movement a constructive force for global cooperation. It will be to our advantage to participate in this pioneering effort. ■

For addresses of professional colleagues abroad, write to:

William C. Bingham, National  
Correspondent  
International Association of Educational  
and Vocational Guidance  
70 Frost Avenue  
East Brunswick, New Jersey 08816

Kenneth N. Morin, Chairperson  
APGA Committee for International  
Education  
Georgia State University  
33 Gilmer St. S.E.  
Atlanta, Georgia 30303

Victor J. Drapela, Director  
APGA International Clearinghouse  
University of South Florida  
FAO 173  
Tampa, Florida 33620

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## Healing

Misery  
huddles in the extra chair  
while I sip my tea, reflecting  
on commonplace despair and its many cures  
on the misconstrued dimensions of one's private hell.

Routine pain can be  
managed with a pill  
and what remains  
can be desensitized until  
the client is approximately well  
and functioning—generally symptom-free.

Which could simply mean:  
she now keeps up appearances that she'd let slide before  
conforms to norms  
and doesn't cry when it hurts anymore

She was right to come to me.

SALLY A. FELKER  
Hiram College, Hiram, Ohio



# counseling rejected applicants: feedback for career development

CHARLES A. HEIKKINEN

Charles A. Heikkinen is Associate Director for Counseling in the Physician's Associate Program at the Yale University School of Medicine in New Haven, Connecticut.

*In this article the author points out the need for more adequate counseling with an often neglected segment of the population: rejected applicants to higher education. He delineates the roles, functions, and problems of the counselor in this situation, using as an example current procedures for counseling rejected applicants in the Yale Physician's Associate Program. The article contains recommendations for counselors, so that they might become more familiar with the problems and functions of admissions committees, and for admissions committees, so that they might enlist the aid of those with counseling training in both the admissions process and the counseling of rejected applicants.*

Despite the current emphasis on outreach efforts in higher education and the search for new ways to become relevant to the educational process, post-high-school counselors can easily overlook applicants to higher education, assuming that these applicants' concerns are being met by high school or other counselors.

This thinking is fallacious for two reasons. First, with the present trend toward applying or reapplying for entrance to higher education after the ac-

quisition of life experiences—raising children, working, etc.—fewer and fewer applicants to higher education have the natural access to the educational/vocational counseling that is afforded to students who enter college directly after high school. Second, few counselors have the kind of intimate knowledge about selection and rejection decisions made by different admissions committees that would enable them to provide up-to-date information to prospective applicants and explicit feedback to rejected applicants. As a result, many applicants apply and reapply in an informational vacuum.

This lack of information is analogous to the lack of information transmitted by the traditional grading system, especially when course papers are simply given a grade without any additional comments being made. Korn (1969, p. 158) has pointed out that the heavy reliance on traditional grading runs counter to the commitment that characterizes the philosophy of our educational system: the development of the entire individual. In the same way, the simple form-letter rejection of an applicant to an educational program fails to take into ac-

count the possibility of the applicant's using the specific rejection reasons for personal growth and self-awareness and for the further development of the decision-making skills that contribute to that growth and self-awareness.

The need is perhaps most apparent for the large numbers of rejected applicants to the medical and legal professions. I know of one case in which a person applied to medical schools for seven consecutive years before giving up in frustration. I know of others who received and followed faulty advice to secure a master's degree in biology and biochemistry, only to be rebuffed again on applying to medical schools. While these may seem to be unusual examples, they and similar fates are common. And, of course, there are large numbers of rejected applicants to other programs.

What, then, can counselors do? This article focuses on how counselors can perform an important and often neglected function: working with the rejected applicant to higher education.

### **A NEW APPLICATION OF OLD COUNSELING ROLES**

There are several roles that can be filled by a counselor who is concerned with the rejected applicant. For the applicant, the counselor can provide a realistic picture of reapplication. This means that the counselor must know what characteristics are considered important by admissions committees and where shortcomings appeared in the applicant's previous attempts. If reapplication is realistic, the counselor can become a consultant on self-presentation and background building. If not, the counselor can be a facilitator of the exploration of career alternatives and personal growth.

In addition, the counselor can perform valuable institutional and societal roles. The successful counselor working in this area can become an institutional time-saver for admissions committees,

who have to spend much time dealing with individuals who persist in making unrealistic reapplications. The net result of the effective counseling of rejected applicants—and prospective applicants—could well be a highly qualified applicant pool that is largely self-selected. From the societal standpoint, the counselor is a human ecologist, assisting in the reclamation of temporarily lost career productivity and facilitating career entry with a minimum of wasted time.

None of these roles is new. Educational counselors have been performing them for years in counseling prospective candidates, although sometimes with incomplete or outdated information. The application of the roles, however, is new; in essence it is the reapplication of old roles to a situation that has resulted from ineffective, incomplete, or nonexistent career counseling and career exploration. The reapplication of these roles requires some new counseling functions, moreover, since it draws on the reasons behind admissions committee decisions.

### **COUNSELING THE REJECTED APPLICANT**

Up to this point, we have considered the what of counseling. Borrowing from Roeber's (1965) distinction between role and function, what remains is to answer the how of counseling. The current effort to assist applicants to the Physician's Associate Program at Yale Medical School is illustrative of how this might be done.

Part of the reason behind a rejected applicant's failure to receive assistance is that he or she is often unaware that some programs are willing to assess the reasons for the application's failure and that it is possible to write or otherwise consult the program for constructive feedback regarding future applications. To counter this, the Yale program invites each rejected applicant, in its form

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**"If reapplication is realistic, the counselor can become a consultant on self-presentation. If not, the counselor can be a facilitator of the exploration of career alternatives and personal growth."**

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rejection letter, to write or come to the office for further information on why the application failed. Last year, out of a total of 400 applicants for 21 positions, roughly 25 to 30 percent followed up on this offer. The offer results in no unusual strain on the program administration, since the program priorities for my time involve counseling students and applicants as well as coordinating the admissions process.

#### **Focusing on Reasons for Rejection**

Preparation for counseling the rejected applicant actually begins before the form letter is sent. During admissions committee discussions of applicants, both those held initially to select interviewees and those held later to make final selections from the interview pool, the committee reaches a consensus on the major inadequacies of most applications and records these data in the proceedings for future reference. Also, since many of the requests for feedback come from the ranks of the 100 applicants who are formally interviewed, this enables me to incorporate into that feedback the face-to-face impressions of several people on the admissions committee, all of which impressions are retained in the applicant's file.

Inadequacies in background, either academic or clinical, are common reasons for rejection by our program and similar programs. In our program we like to see evidence not only that the applicant has the ability, determination,

and interest to do well in the didactic phase of the program but, more important, that the applicant knows from experience what is involved in clinical work with patients. If rejection was based merely on these grounds, counseling consists of advice on how to make up the inadequacies.

In many other cases, however, rejection is due to inadequacies in self-presentation. For counseling in this sphere, it is mandatory that the counselor know the type of self-presentation most valued by the admissions committee and the way self-presentation is evaluated. We in the Yale program, for example, value (a) awareness of the nature of the work of the physician's assistant; (b) willingness to work in a position necessarily dependent on the employing physician (Sadler, Sadler & Bliss 1972); (c) strong commitment to a career as a physician's assistant; (d) interest in and dedication to direct work with all types of people; (e) ability to create a good impression in interpersonal relations; (f) ability to foster a sense of trust in patients; and (g) freedom from debilitating emotional conflicts. The candidate's qualifications in these areas are judged in four ways: informal contact of the applicant with the program, the application essay, personal references, and interview impressions.

The program places emphasis on self-presentation for two reasons. First, inadequacies in self-presentation may indicate incomplete career exploration that can result in short-lived commitment or pseudo-commitment to a career when other careers might be more profitably explored; second, these inadequacies may be indicative of personality characteristics that are judged unsuitable for effective health care as a physician's assistant (Heikkinen 1973).

#### **Broader Career Exploration**

When the question of career commitment arises, the applicant is encouraged



systematically to explore other careers that appear to be related to his or her stated and previously demonstrated interests. Since we prefer applicants who have moved out of the exploration phase, emphasis is placed on the need to truly resolve the exploration process rather than simply try to make it appear to the committee that it has been resolved. When career commitment is the issue and the applicant has no patient care background, exploration is facilitated by suggesting the acquisition of experience to determine whether the applicant will find this type of involvement with people realistically fulfilling. In other cases the exploration process is furthered through discussing the applicant's interests and career objectives, discussing suggested reading, and sometimes also referring the applicant for interest and ability testing.

When more basic personality shortcomings appear to constitute the major problem, counseling attempts to help the individual determine the probabilities and means of overcoming them. We try to be as candid as possible in this respect, on the assumption that self-assessment and career development will be furthered most if the applicant receives honest, specific feedback. For example, candidates often present themselves in interviews in ways that suggest they would have difficulty in instilling confidence in others: They avoid eye contact, talk in a monotone or in a very low voice, show little affect, or are overly aggressive in either relating to people or forcing closure on thinking.

In presenting such data to the candidate, the interviewers take care to speak in terms of their specific reactions. The applicant is encouraged to think of situations in which he or she has received similar feedback and to explore whether this might be indicative of a specific pattern of self-defeating behavior. Sometimes the applicant is referred to other community resources for more extensive

counseling. In all cases, it is made clear that the applicant is welcome to return or write to the program office for further information, clarification, or counseling. Approximately 10 percent of the rejected applicants have initiated more than one post-decision contact with the program. We also point out that the applicant should secure feedback from other programs and sources in order to compare the information received and to secure a better data base on which to make career decisions.

#### **DILEMMAS—ETHICAL AND OTHERWISE**

In counseling rejected applicants, a number of difficulties arise, some of which are ethical. First of all, there is a possible conflict of interest if the applicant receives counseling from a member of the admissions committee who is likely to participate in future decisions regarding the applicant. If the applicant is aware of this, it is likely that self-

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**“With their knowledge of effective human functioning, developmental psychology, and diagnostic skills, counselors can offer a great deal to the process of student selection.”**

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presentation in the counseling interview will be geared toward making a good impression; the applicant may be more anxious to show compliance with the counseling process than to engage in self-exploration. If the applicant is unaware of it, it is possible that the counselor could form a negative bias and thus take unfair advantage of the applicant's vulnerability. In either case the problem is not easily solved. The informed client may not trust the counselor who has once sat in judgment. It is not enough for the

counselor to make it clear that he or she is only one of several decision makers, since a strongly negative impression by one committee member, in this case the counselor, often results in the candidate's being rejected. Perhaps the most that the counselor can do is refrain from further decision making on the applicant and inform the individual at the beginning of the feedback counseling session what the situation is.

A second problem is the implicit danger of encouraging the candidate to think in terms of pleasing a committee instead of growing for personal benefit. This is the danger of "culturism" pointed out by Lowe (1959) in his essay on value conflicts. To be sure, coaching in self-presentation can be instrumental in helping an individual acquire a valuable social skill, one that is often neglected. But if there are other issues that are relevant to professional attitudes and behavior that require exploration, and if the candidate succeeds in gaining admission without dealing with them, his or her future clients may suffer. One approach to this dilemma is to emphasize that counseling deals with basic issues in the applicant's future professional life and that therefore the appropriate focus in counseling is one of honest self-exploration and growth, not one of glossing over imperfections.

A third difficulty is more mechanical in nature. Not all counselors are active on admissions committees. How can they secure the information they need to counsel rejected applicants? The most obvious solution is for counselors to become more involved in admissions processes. With their knowledge of effective human functioning, developmental psychology, and diagnostic skills, counselors can offer a great deal to the process of student selection. When direct committee participation is impossible or undesirable, explicit data on reasons for rejection along with specific admissions criteria might be made available to coun-

selors. The counseling records, however, should be kept confidential. In addition, counselors can help identify and disseminate information on admissions decisions through participation in admissions research. This research would include determining what admissions criteria are actually in use, perhaps after the model of Hamberg, Swanson, and Dohner (1971) in their study of medical admissions. And admissions committees themselves would be aided by more research designed to uncover the criteria most related to effective performance in their applicants' fields (Pharris 1974).

A final pragmatic issue is the question of who is to do this counseling, assuming that a sizable percentage of the rejected applicants follow up the invitation for feedback, as has been the case in our program. And as applicants learn that this service is available, it can be expected that the requests for feedback will mount, perhaps reaching proportions as high as 50 to 75 percent. It seems clear that this person should be someone with counseling training. Yet not all institutions that handle large numbers of applicants (e.g., medical schools) employ counselors who are allotted time for these efforts. Assuming, liberally, a rejected applicant population of 800 individuals for a given school or program, an applicant feedback request rate of 50 percent, and two hours of time for each applicant, the total time needed would be in the area of 800 hours, or 20 weeks of full-time counseling. This burden would be easier to bear if it were shared between two counselors, each of whom would take 10 weeks from other duties. Still, administrators are unlikely to be willing to commit their staff for this work unless it can be demonstrated that the work will increase the effectiveness of their admissions committees in selecting desirable students and that its long-range effect may well be in terms of time saved for members of those committees.

It is therefore incumbent on coun-

selors to demonstrate, through both reason and example, that there is benefit in counseling rejected applicants. Supporting this are the indications from the Yale program that such counseling does help admissions committees to choose more wisely from better-prepared applicants. As a step in this direction, counselors might make efforts to structure more of their time in this endeavor—counseling applicants and participating in admissions, gathering data on results, and using these data in support of their efforts.

### THE OPPORTUNITIES

At present there are many rejected applicants who get little or no assistance in realistically assessing the prospects of successful reapplication or in considering career alternatives. An information feedback gap exists, and counselors are especially well equipped by their training to fill it. This service would be of benefit not only to the applicants themselves but also to institutions, their admissions

committees, and the societal cause of human ecology. The challenge is there; it should be met. ■

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### Correction

In the December 1974 issue of P&G, the person who took the photograph that appears on page 253 was incorrectly identified. The photographer's correct name is Phillip Robinson.



# The Best Articles of the Year

## 1973-1974

Encouraged by last year's favorable response from readers and the APGA Board of Directors, the P&G Editorial Board announces with pleasure its second annual selection of the best articles published during the previous volume year, in this case between September 1973 and June 1974.

In judging the articles, the members of the Editorial Board again rated them on the extent to which they are:

- original or creative
- provocative of thinking or action
- valuable to practitioners
- a good integration of theory and application
- well written

This year one article stood out clearly as the first choice of almost all the Board members, and three additional articles were rated high by several members of the Board. Here are the winners for 1973-1974.

### BEST ARTICLE OF VOLUME 52

"Dimensions of Counselor Functioning"  
by *Weston H. Morrill, Eugene R. Oetting, and James C. Hurst*  
(February 1974, pages 354-359)

### Honorable Mention Articles

(in chronological order)

"Academia and Career Development: Toward Integration"  
by *Robert K. Conyne and Donald J. Cochran*  
(December 1973, pages 217-223)

"An Ecological Perspective and Model for Campus Design"  
by *James H. Banning and Leland Kaiser*  
(February 1974, pages 370-375)

"An Accountability Model for Counselors"  
by *John D. Krumboltz*  
(June 1974, pages 639-646)

# *In the Field*

*Reports of programs, practices, or techniques*

## Using Recreational Games in Counseling

JAMES W. CROCKER, MICHAEL WROBLEWSKI

James W. Crocker is Assistant Professor at George Peabody College for Teachers in Nashville, Tennessee. Michael Wroblewski is Director of the Citizens' Pretrial Intervention Program in Akron, Ohio.

The use of games and game theory in education and counseling is becoming increasingly popular. The usefulness of academic and nonacademic games in learning has been explored in depth (Boocock & Schild 1968; Smith 1968; Stoll 1970). Games designed especially for learning have been found useful both in classroom teaching (Gorden 1969; Hackett 1972; Henderson & Gaines 1971) and in counseling (Boocock 1967; Varenhorst 1973). In some instances games not designed especially for learning have proven useful in classroom instruction (Humphrey 1969; Klaiman & Hochman 1969; O'Toole 1967). Little attention has been given, however, to possible uses of such games in counseling.

In this article we suggest several helpful functions of recreational games in group counseling. Along with these suggestions we present examples from

our private practice, cases in which we believe the use of these games has had positive therapeutic effects. Since the examples are drawn from a clinical rather than an experimental setting, we must acknowledge that the results may represent unplanned side effects. But the results are sufficient to suggest that the use of these games in counseling deserves consideration and further attention. Finally, we discuss criteria for selecting games for group counseling and suggest some helpful uses of several specific games.

The relevance of recreational games to counseling is not an altogether new idea. Bettelheim (1972) has shown some of the psychological significance of such games as blindman's buff, poker, and chess. Capell, a psychoanalyst, has pointed to four phenomena of games that make them particularly interesting as an object of analytic study: "the gross

perceptual and judgmental distortions which regularly occur; the over-evaluation placed on outcome; the profound affective involvement that commonly accompanies the play; and the obvious intensity of fantasy and motor activity by both participants and on-lookers" (Capell 1968, p. 309). He has also noted the usefulness of game concepts in dealing with helplessness and its mastery in a psychoanalytic context. As an example, he has referred to the game Monopoly as an illustration of how "helplessness in reality leads to a pleasurable illusion of power in a game" (p. 328).

## SIX HELPING FUNCTIONS

Recreational games may be used in the group counseling situation in two general ways. First, a game may be used in a group to generate data for a process observation-discussion following the play. For this purpose games limited to two or three players, the rest of the group observing, may be as successful as games allowing for a larger number of players. In this case the discussion following the play is the primary intervention rather than the play itself. In the second case the actual process of playing the game is the focus, as it may have a helping effect on a group or on individuals in a group. We suggest six possible helping functions of playing recreational games in a counseling group.

### Projective Tests

Games may be used as projective tests. The process observation-discussion following the playing of a game may sensitize players to behaviors they had been unaware of. We introduced the commercial game Risk into a growth group we were conducting and, in addition to explaining the standard rules of the game, directed players' behavior by placing on their foreheads stickers that con-

tained instructions as to how other players were to respond to them during the playing of the game. Two of the participants were a husband and wife who had for some time in the group been exploring difficulties in their relationship. During the play the wife wore a sticker that instructed others not to oppose her game strategies. During the discussion after the play she reported that she had become bored when she had no challenge. She then generalized this experience to her relationship with her husband by concluding that when he did not encounter her she was bored. Evidently, playing the game made this aspect of her relationship with her husband clearer to her.

### Feelings of Powerlessness

A game may set up a situation in which anxiety about a certain condition can be confronted and dealt with. For example, the game Monopoly (developed during the Depression) allows players, in a fantasy situation, to deal with anxiety over poverty and helplessness (Capell 1968). Some games, such as the card game hearts and the three-dimensional tic-tac-toe Quibic, allow and even encourage coalition by two players against a third. An individual who chronically complains that "everyone is against me" may profit both by participating in a coalition against another player (thus developing awareness of his or her own power) and by successfully dealing with coalitions by others.

### The Rules of the Game

Playing a game offers a player an opportunity, in a fantasy situation, to deal with the rules of the game as an analogy to living by acceptable norms of society. Clients who always expect special and preferential treatment, either from the group and the counselor or from others in their lives, are forced in a game situation to abide by the same rules as other players. This aspect of game playing may



also be useful in helping delinquent youth accept the reality of rules in society and learn responsible ways of dealing with them—by competing, compromising, negotiating, or persuading.

### **Childlike Playfulness**

A game situation temporarily allows a player's childlike playfulness to emerge and thus may short-circuit or bypass some adult patterns of neurosis that would prevent other interventions from being helpful. A thirty-year-old client of ours exhibited immature social development in the form of adolescent shyness and coyness about sex. He became defensive at any joking or teasing concerning his unmarried state. He giggled rather than laughed at sexual jokes or suggestions. He was unable to relax in many social situations and therefore avoided large parties. Several months of serious counseling produced little in the way of results, apart from some cognitive learning on his part about alternative ways to cope with threatening situations. Several sessions of game playing (Monopoly and hearts) seemed to have significant results. He was surprised to learn that his counselor sometimes cheated at Monopoly ("to make it more fun"). He also appeared to relax in the joking about "screwing" a female player with the queen of spades in the game of hearts. Toward the end of his association with us, he reported a change in his dating behavior. Rather than asking women friends to concerts and plays, as he did before, he was now planning picnics, hikes, and the like, because they were "more fun."

### **A Permissive Climate**

By allowing a fantasy situation, games create a safe and permissive climate in which individuals can experiment with new behaviors. Such experimentation has been one of the goals of T-groups and sensitivity labs. At a time when the concepts of sensitivity training and en-

counter groups elicit some negative popular responses, playing recreational games is more socially acceptable than "that touchy-feely encounter stuff" and thus may be less threatening and more facilitative.

### **Coping Behavior**

Finally, playing a recreational game may help participants learn coping behavior. Gorden (1970, p. 29) has noted that game players "must learn to cope with what winning and losing does to their feelings of self-worth." Most of us who have played a game with a group of friends have experienced the anxiety inherent in the risk of losing and have no doubt coped with losing by making rationalizations of various sorts. But we overlook that game playing also involves the risk of winning. Aggressiveness, beating others, and accepting deserved praise is as difficult for some as losing is for others. Exploring winning and losing through the safe and immediate method of playing a game can transfer into skills for coping with aggressiveness, defeat, hostility, criticism, and praise in real life.

### **SELECTING THE APPROPRIATE GAME**

We believe that many recreational games can serve one or more of these six helping functions, although obviously not all games are appropriate for all groups. The helpfulness of a game will depend to a large extent on the particular use it is put to by a professional counselor with a particular group. Once the counselor and group have decided to use games in their sessions, the question becomes which games to use.

Three criteria should govern the selection of a game for use in group counseling. First, the game should either be familiar to the group already or simple enough to learn through oral instruction, so that not much time is spent reading rules and learning how to play. Second, the game should have clearly help-

ful effects that are understood by the counselor. Third, these helpful effects should be applicable to a particular group's present stage of development. Below we mention several games that seem to meet the first criterion. For each of these games we suggest at least one helping effect that could prove useful at any point during group counseling, depending on the needs of group members, and suggest a specific recognized phase of group development for which each game or set of games seems particularly appropriate.

### Risking Involvement

Gambling games (poker, dice) and some bidding games (bridge, oh hell) focus dramatically on the dynamics of taking and avoiding risk. Players are required to determine the degree to which they are willing to risk potential loss against potential gain in a series of changing situations. The questions "Should I raise my bid?" "Should I stand pat?" "Should I fold or pass?" must be answered repeatedly in these games. The counselor or group could assign group members individualized experiments to make during the course of play. A player who avoids risky situations, for example, could be assigned the experiment of making more or larger bets.

Poker games also raise the issue of bluffing. Playing this game can be the vehicle for examining the extent to which psychological bluffing hinders or helps in life—or in counseling sessions. Again, the counselor or group could assign experiments to particular group members. Someone with a poor self-image, for example, could be asked to try bluffing more; and someone accustomed to talking about problems but not facing them could be told to "put your money where your mouth is."

These gambling, bidding, and bluffing games could be introduced into a group while members are attempting to

establish a norm of change through risk taking. Rogers (1970, p. 19) has called this phase of group development the *expression and exploration of personally meaningful material*, and Miles (1959) has called it *getting involved more deeply*. In effect, these games help communicate to group members: "If you are to gain from this group, you must risk in it."

### Control

Playing Monopoly focuses on power and helplessness. Players must develop and organize their resources through wise decision-making so as to finish the game "rich" rather than "poor," "powerful" rather than "weak." How individual players respond to these requirements of the game and to the outcome can become data for a valuable discussion following or even during the game. Developing personal awareness and sensitivity to others concerning issues of power, aggressiveness, and monopolizing can be an important effect of this game. The group could discuss how winning players feel about controlling losing players and how losing players feel about being controlled.

The Risk game also focuses on aggressiveness and helplessness, but more directly than does Monopoly. Players in Risk must intentionally move to eliminate other players, with the goal of controlling a map of the world. This game also requires making decisions about risk taking. A player's turn continues as long as the player judges his or her moves to be profitable. Successful play involves spreading offensive and defensive armies throughout a map of the world without spreading resources too thin. To that extent, Monopoly and Risk draw attention to power relationships among individuals. These two games are appropriate for the phase of group development that Schutz (1958) has called *control* and Tuckman (1965) has called *intragroup conflict*. Obviously, the Risk game could also be appropriately intro-



duced during the risk-learning phase of group development.

### Interdependence

The Family Contracting Game, developed by Elaine Blechman of Yale University's Department of Psychiatry, teaches families and other groups how to contract. It is a board game in which players must negotiate with each other in order to move around the board. In this way players develop a contract that is mutually pleasing and germane to their problem. The content of the contract can be whatever behavior is causing difficulty in the group. What is to be emphasized is the interdependence of the family or group, and participants learn the process of behavior contracting through a low-threat method.

Two children's activity games may be helpful in exploring group members' experience with control and dependence. "Mother, May I?" and "Simon Says" require obedience to the commands of the player who is "it" at the time. The first game puts dependent players in a double bind, since the person who is "it" may give a command and then deny permission when asked "Mother, May I?" By playing both leader and follower roles in these two games, group members can explore feelings of freedom and dependence. These games could be introduced to explore specific behaviors or expressions that group members feel guilty about or feel to be desirable but "improper." The person who is "it" could give the appropriate individual the order to "get a divorce" or "take more private time for yourself" or "show pride in your accomplishments" or "get angry when someone hurts you."

These three games are particularly relevant to the phase of group development that Bennis and Shepherd (1956) have called *dependence-flight* and Tuckman has called *testing and dependence*. During this phase group members begin to test the boundaries of behavior

and begin to deal with leading and following in the group.

### GAMES: AN AID, NOT A PANACEA

Although we have suggested the use of games in counseling, we recognize that counseling is not a game but a serious attempt to help people who have problems. Games can aid in this attempt by generating data and focusing on particular psychological themes. As with any aid to counseling, games cannot by themselves provide lasting benefits. They cannot substitute for sound counseling practice, nor can they replace the healing benefits and growth opportunities inherent in a close client-counselor relationship. Games can enhance the efficacy of counseling but cannot replace a warm, human relationship. ■

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## A Rational-Emotive Workshop on Overcoming Study Blocks

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At one time or another, most students have negative attitudes toward studying ("study blocks"). They put off studying, hand in a paper late, or get emotionally hung up when anticipating tomorrow's exam. In light of the widespread existence of the problem of procrastination, it is somewhat surprising that rational-emotive theorists have written so little that bears directly on the topic. The relatively few systematic attempts at using this approach can be attributed to the works of Maultsby (1971), Jacobs (1972), and Knaus (1974).

At all educational levels, students are seldom provided with a vehicle that will enable them to learn concrete ways of dealing with the problem of goofing off. This article deals with a counseling approach that was recently used at Limestone College in South Carolina, a school in which there are several students who have average academic ability but have a history of low grades and poor study attitudes. Such students would be appropriate candidates for this type of work-

shop. In fact, the workshop developed as a result of expressed interest and need on the part of several students, the dean of the college, and this writer.

Participants were informed of the group through posters placed at strategic locations in the college. The workshop was limited to ten first- and second-year students, all of whom were self-referred and highly motivated. One academic credit was given for participation. None of the students had any previous group counseling experience.

### THE APPROACH

The purpose of this workshop was to introduce a model that would enable students to evaluate their beliefs and attitudes toward studying and to relearn, or at least have reinforced, attitudes and behaviors that would enable them to become more effective students. Rational-emotive counseling (REC) as described by Ellis (1973) and Ellis and Harper (1961) seemed to provide an ideal model

with which to accomplish this function. In many of his writings Ellis has discussed people's tendency to be "short-range hedonists" and to "goof off." Several of what he refers to as "irrational ideas" relate specifically to the issue of studying by providing a convenient vehicle for discussion of some typical misconceptions that lead to poor study attitudes.

The basic principle behind REC is that thoughts affect emotions and behaviors. Students must become aware of the irrational sentences they are telling themselves to maintain their study blocks. It is important that students identify this irrationality in order to change their study behavior. Members of this group were given help in understanding how such beliefs as "I must be all-achieving" or "the world should be the way I want it to be" keep them from studying more effectively.

The use of systematic written homework is routinely assigned by counselors who use the REC approach to allow clients to take a more active part in the acquisition and maintenance of their emotional health. A self-help mental-health aid prepared in standard homework format by Maultsby (1971) and called the A-B-C-D Self-Analysis Worksheet was used with this group. The A section consists of the perceived external facts or events associated with a study problem. B, the self-talk section, contains only the client's irrational thoughts about A. The C section is a simple description of the emotional responses to A. The D section is the rational alternative self-talk section; the client analyzes the B section to determine whether or not it is an accurate description of objective reality. If it is not, the client tries to question and challenge the B section in accordance with objective reality. The client makes a sentence-by-sentence challenge, correcting any unrealistic, illogical, or inappropriate thinking.

The workshop consisted of eight 90-minute sessions held twice a week (on Tuesday and Thursday afternoons) during the first four weeks of the 1974 spring semester. This allowed sufficient time for members to discuss the various feelings, beliefs, and behaviors that were contributing to their academic ineffectiveness. It also afforded them an opportunity to start individualized programs and homework assignments based on their needs. The meetings were held in a large, comfortable room that was free from interruptions and that enabled members to be seated in a circular fashion.

## THE SESSIONS

### First Session

The leader introduced himself and stated that the goal of the sessions was to help participants study more effectively. He explained what a study block meant emotionally, intellectually, and behaviorally. Group members then filled out a questionnaire to provide the leader with information about their present study behavior.

Each student shared the feelings that he or she experienced when studying. This exercise caused people to look more deeply into themselves and helped to develop a feeling of trust among them. Students became aware that their concerns were not unique but were common to other students.

In closing, the leader assigned homework that involved keeping a diary of one's feelings when studying. Participants were told of the importance of keeping track of their feelings, because emotions such as anger, frustration, boredom, and a sense of powerlessness are signals that something is wrong. The "something" is the individual's set of irrational, self-defeating thoughts, which the students would eventually be able to identify. Therefore, prior to the next session they were to read a handout sheet

adapted from Maultsby (1971) on how thoughts affect feelings.

## Second Session

Students discussed the homework assignments. One member remarked, "I didn't know that I had so many negative feelings about studying." Another inquired, "Can't we have any feelings without thoughts accompanying them?" to which the leader responded, "Well, I guess it's possible to have some feelings without any obvious thoughts, but we could never *sustain* these feelings without thinking something." They were then asked to try to get angry at a teacher without thinking something. Several agreed that a feeling of anger must have an accompanying thought. These comments led to further discussion about why students might experience intense emotions without being aware of thinking any specific idea.

The leader pointed out five of the most common irrational beliefs about studying. Participants were introduced to the process of questioning and challenging their "bull" by means of Maultsby's A-B-C-D Self-Analysis Worksheet. In closing, they were asked to take the sheets home and complete them for the next session.

## Session Three

The session began with some participants expressing concern that they had done a poor job in completing the assignment. The leader pointed out that it would be unrealistic to expect to make perfect analyses the first few times; only with diligent practice could progress take place.

The leader presented for correction actual examples of incorrect rational self-analyses (RSAs) done by three members of this group, since it is helpful for participants to study both correctly and incorrectly completed RSAs in order that they can learn to follow the A-B-C-D format accurately and challenge irra-

tional beliefs adequately. Each participant was asked to correct his or her RSA and to review it as soon as possible after experiencing any major negative feelings about studying. Since most had several irrational ideas about their schoolwork, additional RSAs were to be completed prior to the next session.

## Sessions Four and Five

There was additional review of the RSAs as well as intensive group discussion of each member's beliefs and attitudes about studying. The leader encouraged students to develop and share tentative hypotheses about the nature of an individual's irrational beliefs. This allowed students to have additional practice in learning to challenge their own attitudes. The following brief excerpt from the study group is illustrative of this approach.

**Student A:** I can't do my homework; the sentences get blurred and I get panicky. The weekend goes by and I haven't done my work. All those smart people are going to discuss the assignment, and I'll sit there like a dunce. (Expressing A, the perceived event)

**Counselor:** It sounds like you have the absolute demand that you must do well in this and a very strong fear of failure. (Exposing B, the "bull")

**Student A:** Like the other day I got back a test and got a 60. I just walked out of the class quickly.

**Student B:** Would 60 have passed you?

**Student A:** I never found out. Later I heard that the guy I was studying with got a 90, and I set up this comparison right there.

**Student C:** You probably felt that you did worse than anybody else that took that test.

**Student A:** Right!

**Counselor:** You see, it's so easy to assume that everybody knows more and



does better things. You write off anything that's good about your work and only focus on the negative aspects. (D challenges B)

The discussion continued to unmask irrational beliefs and ways to question and challenge them. As students became better acquainted with their beliefs and attitudes, they began to realize what was blocking them. Students were constantly reminded that they could change their study behavior only if they were willing to change their irrational beliefs first. A tape recording was made of sessions four and five, and members were given the assignment of listening to the tape.

### **Sessions Six, Seven, and Eight**

During the last three sessions the focus switched from thoughts to behaviors. Members were cautioned that it was not enough to think better; they had to act. In REC there is a comprehensive approach to study problems employing cognitive, emotive, and behavioral modalities. This makes the approach unique and somewhat superior to other methods used with study skill groups. Behavioral techniques are seen as a means of abetting newly attained cognitive and emotional insights rather than merely as methods of symptom removal. Moreover, students learn a way of problem solving that helps them to challenge their self-defeating beliefs in areas of their life in addition to studying.

The leader introduced a variety of behavioral techniques that students could use to study more effectively, including self-reinforcement, written reminders, and environmental contingencies. During these sessions, programs and homework assignments were individually tailored for each person. Group members were asked to bring their incompleting tasks to the group and actually work on them there. One member practiced making up and answering sample test questions; another, who had

been putting off writing a term paper, actually began working on it there.

### **EVALUATION OF THE WORKSHOP**

Participant feedback seemed to indicate that the experience was a favorable one, and all felt that they were moving in the right direction. Eight of the ten students believed that the single most helpful thing they became aware of was their tendency to irrationally compare themselves to others, which in turn caused them to feel inferior.

If another workshop is conducted, some things will be done differently. Three of the students did not take kindly to this heavily cognitive approach, so more time will be allowed during the earlier group sessions for discussing some of the fears students have about REC—fears such as "I'll just be a robot if I believe all this" or "I won't have any feelings left at all." Due to requests from five members of the group, the number of sessions will probably be increased from eight to ten or twelve.

Questionnaires were mailed to participants six weeks after the workshop in order to test the consistency of the favorable results obtained and to determine how the workshop information was being used. Eight of the participants responded. It appears that several of the gains made by students under the individualized programs of the last three sessions were continuing to be realized: Two members, for example, had completed term papers—something they would have previously considered impossible. Most of the participants were continuing to take a more active part in their studies by doing such things as asking others questions and making up and answering sample test questions.

A second outcome was increased grade point average (GPA). Students who had been in the workshop showed an average gain in GPA of .53 (on a 4-point scale). Two students whose pre-

vious GPAs were 1.67 and 1.75 had post-workshop gains of .84 and 1.20, respectively. It is difficult to assess how much the workshop contributed to these gains; the students themselves believed it had a significant impact.

A third outcome was the improved study attitudes of participants and their ability to continue to benefit from the A-B-C-D format. The respondents were asking themselves, "Why must I be all-achieving?" and "Why should my classes or teachers be the way I want them to be?" They reported an increased awareness of how to challenge their "bull" instead of merely describing wishes for self-change in the D section of the analysis.

Counselors could readily be taught the necessary cognitive and behavioral competencies that would prepare them to

lead study block workshops. This would provide the counselor with an opportunity to work in a preventive or developmental role and to affect a significant but often overlooked client: the student who has irrational expectations about school and studying. ■

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## Chicano Group Catalysts

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For the most part, ethnicity has been disregarded by growth group facilitators. This is unfortunate, since culture and language play significant roles in the counseling group process. To demonstrate how ethnicity can be incorporated into growth groups, I have developed seven Chicano group catalysts, or interaction facilitation techniques (Bates & Johnson 1972, p. 107).

A colleague and I first used the Chicano group catalyst (CGC) when we co-led two Chicano growth groups during the 1974 winter and spring quarters at California State Polytechnic University—Pomona (CSPUP). Each group consisted of eight Chicano students and had equal numbers of men and women. The CGC has also been tried out recently with high school students, with

Neighborhood Youth Corps students, with program coordinators, and in other school settings.

It is important to understand the prerequisites and purposes of the CGC. First, the group facilitator should have the proper academic training in group leadership and counseling. Second, this person must be bilingual, speaking Spanish and English. This requirement is essential for optimum communication, since it minimizes the risk of communication breakdown. Bilingualism also allows group members to work through an impasse by permitting them to revert to their primary language, which often is Spanish. Furthermore, it broadens the availability of emotional responses from group members, as the counselor can encourage them to use either language in expressing feelings. Third, the facilitator must be bicultural, having undergone Chicano experiences and being aware of the dynamics of those experiences. Biculturalism is necessary for a complete understanding of Chicano perspectives and language in a cultural context. It also leads to greater insight into the client's frame of reference, the facilitation of counseling processes, and the establishment of rapport, empathy, and trust. Goldstein (1974, p. 89) has stressed that the practitioner "must be cognizant that the target behaviors are not in contradiction to the cultural system within which he is working," and biculturalism facilitates this as well.

### THE TECHNIQUES

The seven interaction facilitation techniques have several purposes: (a) to deal with "unfinished business" and resolve it; (b) to enable people to reclaim and integrate those parts of themselves they have ignored, denied, or repressed, so that they can become more holistic; (c) to validate group ethnicity and cohesion; (d) to clarify values; (e) to tap potential and enhance growth; (f) to facilitate the self-actualization of group members; (g) to

provide alternatives to "forced" assimilation. The CGCs described below appear in the order of recommended use.

### Una Palabra

Spanish is the native language of the Chicano community, and the speaking of Spanish is an emotionally loaded issue. Chicanos either are able to speak Spanish fluently and consider it a strength; are able to speak Spanish but feel embarrassed and ashamed to do so; were once able to speak Spanish but no longer can; or are unable to speak Spanish. The members of the last three categories have expressed, in a group setting, feelings of inadequacy, rejection, hurt, and nonacceptance for not speaking Spanish.

The "Una Palabra" (a word) technique provides a vehicle through which group members can deal with their positive and negative feelings associated with the speaking of Spanish. The group facilitator models by verbalizing a word or phrase in Spanish and revealing feelings associated with speaking Spanish. The group members are given an opportunity to provide feedback, express their emotional reactions, and point out action alternatives. Each member is then given a turn to repeat the modeled procedure.

The use of this catalyst has resulted in group members expressing greater group cohesion, increased feelings of acceptance, and alternatives for future action.

### Reclaim Your Nombre

"Reclaim Your Nombre" (name) was developed in order to increase acceptance of self, identity, and ethnicity. This interaction technique is especially meaningful for those group members whose real names have been changed by others; Vicente, Marcos, Marta, Francisco, and Enrique, for example, became Bert, Skip, Martie, Franky, and Hank, respectively. It is also helpful for those who have had their names mispronounced.



In this procedure, group members are offered the opportunity to state their real names and pronounce them correctly. They can also express and deal with feelings related to their names.

## Color

American society has perpetuated the belief that "white is right" at the expense of people with different skin colors—brown, black, red, and yellow (Bunton & Weissback 1974; Cota-Robles de Suárez 1971). In light of this fact, skin color is both a significant and a complex issue for Chicanos. Groups can make use of this issue by focusing on skin color gradations and on feelings associated with skin color.

Chicanos vary in skin color from *güeros* (light-complexioned) to medium brown to *morenos* (dark-complexioned). The majority of Chicanos have medium-brown skin. Because of this skin-color range, one may expect to find differing experiences among Chicanos. Facilitators can introduce the issue of skin color by sharing with the group their feelings about their own skin color and then asking each group member to do likewise.

The use of skin color as a group catalyst has resulted in group members expressing not only positive feelings regarding skin color but also negative ones, many due to painful emotional experiences they have undergone because of the color of their skin. For example, Chicanos who are *morenos* have sometimes expressed feelings of pride at looking so *indio* (Indian) but have also expressed feelings of hurt, rejection, and nonbelonging for being *prieto* (dark) or *negro* (black). Chicanos who are *güeros* have expressed guilt ("I was favored over my sister because of my lighter skin, and I don't feel good about that"), resentment and rejection ("I wish I were darker and accepted by other Chicanos"), satisfaction ("I know that I'm

*güero*; however, I'm still a Chicano"). Chicanos with medium-brown skin have expressed a multitude of feelings, ranging from positive to ambivalent to negative ("I was ashamed of my parents when they came to school. This brought me to the realization that I too was brown—which I didn't like.").

## Sonidos

The "Sonidos" (sounds) catalyst is essentially a nonverbal exercise designed to increase listening skills and to serve as a vehicle for nonverbal communication between two people from the group. Each group member is asked to select a Chicano musical instrument, such as a *güiro* (a grooved gourd), a tambourine, maracas, or bongos. Group members are then asked to "get in tune with" their instrument through personification, fantasy, and so on, and to listen to the various sounds it produces. After a ten-minute period, group members are asked to pair off—but they are not allowed to speak to each other. They must now communicate with each other only through their instruments. After another ten minutes or so, they are asked to reconvene as a group and discuss their feelings concerning the exercise.

## El Grito

"El Grito" provides the group members with an opportunity to express joy, happiness, and ecstasy in a natural and acceptable Chicano manner. Even though this catalyst is similar to Otto's group yell (1973, pp. 203–206), it has its own uniqueness and Chicano flavor.

The group facilitator begins the session by informing the group members that they will be listening to a mariachi album—preferably one that contains *gritos* (yells) and heavy sounds—and that during its playing or after it is over they should stand up and let out their own distinct *gritos*. A discussion follows in which group members can express how they are feeling.

## Chicano Handclap

The "Chicano Handclap" apparently originated during the late sixties out of the intense and active political involvement of many Chicanos. It is a cohesive device that has resulted in catharsis, ethnic solidarity, and group identification. This interaction technique is based on the premise that physical release will help trigger emotional release. The "Chicano Handclap" begins softly with a slow and steady beat, gradually increases in tempo and loudness, and then tapers off. The handclapping can also be accompanied by foot tapping.

The group simultaneously begins the clapping, accompanying it with the verbalization of the emotions they are experiencing. After the clapping is over, an opportunity is provided for the expression and discussion of feelings.

## Journey to Aztlán

Aztlán has traditionally been defined in geographic-historical terms; it is the southwestern U.S. and northern Mexico area, in which the Aztecs are said to have originated. Currently the term has philosophical, sociopsychological, and political connotations, primarily in the sense of self-determination. This catalyst is a guided fantasy that allows group members to use their imagination, spontaneity, and creativity. It generates much information about values and beliefs and may result in meaningful experiences.

The group facilitator begins by briefly explaining Aztlán. Group members are asked to close their eyes and imagine that they are climbing a steep, rugged, massive mountain that appears almost overwhelming. After a long pause, they are then asked to imagine that they have reached the top of the mountain and are looking down at the valley of Aztlán. After some time has expired, they are asked to open their eyes when they are finished with the fantasy. They are now allowed to tell the group what they saw and felt in the valley of Aztlán.

## SOME RESULTS

At the conclusion of each Chicano growth group held at CSPUP, the participants were asked as a group and individually to evaluate the effectiveness of the CGC. Their feedback indicated that there was increased acceptance of group ethnicity, skin color, name, language, and Chicano cultural factors; that unfinished business was dealt with and in some cases resolved; that potentials were discovered, acknowledged, and tapped. Further, the participants communicated a feeling that the CGC focused on cultural and linguistic areas that needed to be dealt with and probably would not have been dealt with elsewhere. They also expressed satisfaction in having bilingual group facilitators who possessed an understanding of the Chicano cultural experience.

To provide a specific illustration of observed outcomes, the case of Elena, a group member, is presented here. Initially Elena reacted strongly when "Una Palabra" was introduced into the group. This catalyst called to mind painful memories of her early school experiences, when she had been told that if she spoke Spanish she would be punished, would become confused in her thoughts, and would be crippled linguistically because of an awful accent. Through the use of empathy and support from the group, Elena was later able to speak Spanish freely and feel good about it. "El Grito" and the "Chicano Handclap" allowed Elena to exhibit more emotion. "Journey to Aztlán" helped her in overcoming obstacles, formulating strategies, and clarifying goals. Elena underwent numerous other behavioral changes that stemmed from the CGC. By realizing that others in the group shared similar experiences and feelings, she became less alienated. She formed new friendships, and her school attendance and performance improved. Furthermore, her need to act "phony" diminished and

her defenses were lowered, resulting in her accepting herself more as a person and as a Chicana.

### CONCLUDING COMMENTS

With minor substitutions or modifications, counselors can make use of some of these catalysts with other cultural groups. For instance, blacks, Puerto Ricans, Native Americans, Asians, and others can easily utilize the skin color catalyst. And the *sonidos* catalyst has universal applicability. Hopefully, counselors will begin developing additional group catalysts geared for Chicanos as well as for other cultural groups. I believe that the development and applica-

tion of such group catalysts will enhance the counseling process for all. ■

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# Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

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**Intervention in Human Services** by Eveline D. Schulman. The C. V. Mosby Company, 11830 Westline Industrial Dr., St. Louis, Missouri 63141. 1974. 235 pp. \$6.95 paperback.

Developed in preparing paraprofessionals for helping services, this 7x10 text could enlarge the insights and skills of professionals as well. First covering observation, recording, and reporting, it devotes the bulk of its space to interviewing, which it then incorporates into counseling. In addition to a useful appendix of curriculum material sources, a lengthy bibliography, and an extensive index, there is a delightful, enlightening glossary, in which one finds not only *dialogue* but also *duologue* (what I have long called "concurrent soliloquies") and *duelogue*: "Communication in which two individuals arm themselves with word weapons and carry on a verbal duel." Author Schulman is indeed sharp!

**A Handbook of Verbal Group Exercises** by Kenneth T. Morris and Kenneth M. Cinnamon. Charles C Thomas, 301-327 East Lawrence Ave., Springfield, Illinois 62717. 1974. 347 pp. \$12.95 hardbound, \$8.95 paperback.

Though one can easily get exercised over the damage groups can do, they can do some good and are apparently here to stay. Their effectiveness could be improved through selective use of the verbal exercises here provided. Arranged for user selection to suit specific goals, the 175 basic exercises and 135 variations are described under 22 rubrics such as Icebreakers, Awareness, Empathy, Self-Disclosure, Listening, Feedback, Assessment, and Closure. While the book lacks general guidelines for the use of group exer-

cises, the authors supply specific suggestions for using these exercises, with commendable expressions of caution.

**Management and Improvement of Guidance** by George E. Hill. Second edition. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1974. 608 pp. \$12.95.

This is a commendable text covering the gamut of topics in a foundations of guidance course. Only a couple of chapters seem specifically geared toward "management" or administration of guidance, and "improvement" is little more than a frame of reference for some of the content. Hill is highly analytical, detailed, and thorough, having obviously updated his first edition. His treatment is clear and forthright, yet fair and balanced. A school people's scholar.

**Outcome Management Applied to Pupil Personnel Services** by William P. Mease and Loren L. Benson. Pupil Personnel Services Section, State Department of Education, Capitol Square Bldg., St. Paul, Minnesota 55101. 1973. 112 pp. \$2.50 paperback. **Additional Studies in Elementary School Guidance: Psychological Education Activities Evaluated** edited by G. Dean Miller. Same publisher. 1973. 434 pp. \$6.50 paperback.

With a light verbal and visual touch, Mease and Benson spell out their accountability-born acronym SOOM, Self-Other Outcome Management, bred on management by objectives and by results and delineated in lively detail to ascertain and satisfy the needs of students, teachers, and parents. Included are needs assessment instruments. The same three groups are Miller's targets through 12 research reports by various authors on such

topics as self-concept change, peer relationships, teacher attitudes, parent education, and communication systems, topped off by Miller's extensive summary of Minnesota elementary school guidance research.

**Planning Non-Traditional Programs** by K. Patricia Cross, John R. Valley, and associates. Jossey-Bass, Inc., 615 Montgomery St., San Francisco, California 94111. 1974. 263 pp. \$9.95.

Toward "encouraging diversity of educational opportunity for learners of every age and circumstance," the Commission on Non-Traditional Study, under the joint auspices of the College Entrance Examination Board and the Educational Testing Service and with funds from the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Educational Foundation of America, conducted (traditional) research on many relevant questions, here reported by 11 authors, none named *al*. Alternative paths to adult learning are explored, together with barriers to "would-be learners." One of the seven chapters is a long annotated bibliography.

**Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research** by Ralph M. Stogdill. The Free Press, 866 Third Ave., New York 10022. 1974. 613 pp. \$19.95.

This Herculean handbook represents comprehensive coverage of an area of intense societal concern. Stogdill abstracted thousands of books and journal articles, organized the abstracts into leadership topics, and analyzed everything "to determine what is known about leadership." The 41 chapters deal with many dimensions and dynamics, the final chapter suggesting directions for future research. Readers concerned about leaders can tap a 152-page bibliography and two extensive indexes.

**Criminal Justice and Behavior**, Vol. 1, No. 1, March 1974. Sage Publications, Inc., 275 South Beverly Dr., Beverly Hills, California 90212. Pp. 1-96. Annual subscription (4 issues) \$18.00, professionals \$12.00, students \$9.00.

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**Proprietary Schools and Postsecondary Education** by David A. Trivett. American Association for Higher Education, One Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036. 1974. 54 pp. \$2.00 paperback.

Research Report No. 2 of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education, this small book covers a large area of perennial concern: private, profit-oriented operations that use a hard sell for a fast buck. Honest schools may be muddled by intermittent muckraking efforts, but endless efforts seem needed to protect innocent seekers after knowledge. Trivett avoids trivia in providing basic information about the various types of schools, how they operate, who attends, and their "abusive practices" vs. their "social value."



# Book Reviews

*Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to the Editor, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.*

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|                                                                                                              |        |                                                                                                          |        |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| <b>Counseling for Career Development</b> by E. L. Tolbert                                                    | p. 470 | <b>Guidance Program Development and Management</b> by Herman J. Peters and Bruce Shertzer                | p. 478 |
| <b>Career Education for Gifted and Talented Students</b> by Kenneth B. Hoyt and Jean R. Hebel                | p. 471 | <b>The Counselor and Military Service Opportunities</b> by Dean L. Hummel                                | p. 480 |
| <b>Work Is Here to Stay, Alas</b> by Sar A. Levitan and William B. Johnston                                  | p. 471 | <b>Public Schools of Choice: A Plan for the Reform of American Education</b> by Mario D. Fantini         | p. 480 |
| <b>Occupational Careers: A Sociological Perspective</b> by Walter L. Slocum                                  | p. 474 | <b>Guidance Services in the Modern School</b> by Merle M. Ohlsen                                         | p. 481 |
| <b>About Behaviorism</b> by B. F. Skinner                                                                    | p. 476 | <b>The Organization of Pupil Personnel Programs: Issues and Practices</b> edited by Raymond N. Hatch     | p. 482 |
| <b>Rehabilitation of the Urban Disadvantaged</b> edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy                 | p. 476 | <b>The Counselor's Handbook</b> edited by Gail F. Farwell, Neal R. Gamsky, and Philippa Mathieu-Coughlan | p. 482 |
| <b>The Black Self</b> by Marvin D. Wyne, Kinard P. White, and Richard H. Coop                                | p. 477 |                                                                                                          |        |
| <b>Severe Disabilities: Social and Rehabilitation Approaches</b> edited by Richard E. Hardy and John G. Cull | p. 478 |                                                                                                          |        |

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**Counseling for Career Development** by E. L. Tolbert. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1974. 340 pp. \$9.95.

This book tells you all you wanted to know about counseling for career development but were too busy to find or read. It is a compact, well-organized, precisely written production that covers the basic principles of career development and relates them to the traditional guidance program components.

Eleven chapters are integrated around the concept of providing career counseling to students. Chapter 1 establishes the critical need for career guidance in a social and educational context. Chapter 2 introduces theories of career development via case study excerpts, definitions, and a classification into five categories: trait-and-factor, or actuarial; decision theory; sociological emphases; psychological emphases; and developmental emphases. A review of these theories is capsulized into 40 pages, concluding with the author's point of view and the implications of

the theories. Chapter 3 follows up with an analysis of factors common to all theories of career development. The factors defined and discussed are both environmental and personal and include occupational aptitudes, occupational interests, personality, achievement, home and family, economics, and handicaps.

Chapters 4 through 11 present updated information on the components of a guidance program. The author's approach differs here in that each technique is related to its use in career guidance. The content of these chapters represents the most recent directions, research, practices, and references in the field. The author shows a sensitivity to current issues by including sections on counseling women, counseling the disadvantaged, and accountability. Chapter 5 deals with sources of information for students. Chapters 6 through 10 emphasize helping students. Decision making is discussed as it is implemented through individual and group

counseling. Chapters 8 and 9 stress the need for career guidance as a total school program, with the counselor offering leadership to support personnel.

I recommend this book as a text or a reference work for undergraduate and graduate students in basic guidance courses and courses specifically oriented to career guidance. Because it reflects current issues and practices, synthesizes many bits and pieces of career guidance information and background, and provides reality-based exercises, experiences, and references, it is an important addition to the bookshelf of the practitioner, the educator, and the student of career guidance. For those who want to know more about career guidance, the 25-page bibliography should be helpful.—*Thelma Jones Friend, Wayne County Community College, Detroit, Michigan.*

**Career Education for Gifted and Talented Students** by Kenneth B. Hoyt and Jean R. Hebel. Salt Lake City, Utah: Olympus Publishing Company, 1974. 296 pp. \$8.95 hardbound, \$5.95 paperback.

This book makes it clear that there are a variety of definitions of career education, depending on the professional's values and the values prevailing in the society and its institutions. Consequently, one had better examine one's own beliefs before accepting or rejecting the concept of career education. The authors realize that the schools are designed to complement the much broader and deeper educational influence of other institutions and of life itself. They define work broadly enough to expand it from cradle to grave. Career thus encompasses values, interests, and occupation. Education is seen as a person's total experience, not just the person's formal schooling.

The eleven chapters range from definitions of career education, of work, and of basic value issues to existing exemplary programs, policy and curricular considerations, and program organization and administration. While the emphasis is on the gifted and talented, much of the book's content is equally applicable to all students. (There is a set of practical suggestions to fulfill the particular needs of this special group.)

Occasionally the authors raise more questions than they can answer. This is as it should be, because each professional must respond to certain questions in his or her own way

according to his or her own precepts and values. The book serves admirably in clarifying underlying premises. It forces readers to work along, to look at their own philosophies, and to respond accordingly.

At the present time the money available for innovative career education programs seems to be decreasing, and the danger looms that the concept will become another passé fad of the educational establishment. Perhaps the trend can be averted by heeding the authors' statement that what career education asks is "to turn the curriculum from the past to the future and learning from mere acquisition of knowledge to the art of utilization of knowledge." Maybe this is what any attempt at educational innovation is essentially all about. "The educator's problem is not one of 'either . . . or' but of constantly rebalancing emphases." Much that is wrong with formal education and the rejection of new ideas reflects the limits of the educators' own experiences.

Depending on the reader's area of professional practice, not all of the book's chapters may be of equal interest. However, for anyone connected with education—especially counselors within or outside of the school system—some of the chapters are "must" reading, in particular those that deal with definitions and value issues.—*Eva G. Hoffmann, State Project to Implement Career Education, New York, N.Y.*

**Work Is Here to Stay, Alas** by Sar A. Levitan and William B. Johnston. Salt Lake City, Utah: Olympus Publishing Company, 1973. 184 pp. \$7.95.

*Work Is Here to Stay, Alas* is, alas, a book that will not be appreciated except by this reviewer and other dispassionate students of work, for, as the authors note in the preface, the book "seeks to compare the gut feelings and 'obvious' conclusions with the evidence." Their evidence is presented in highly readable form and leaves all of the "obvious conclusions" open to question: Work will not disappear; all jobs will not be humanized; dissatisfied workers are in the minority; and jobs will not be designed first for people, at least not in the foreseeable future. And money is the motivator in the marketplace of labor!

Unlike so many who draw "obvious conclusions," Levitan and Johnston solidly buttress their positions on what data are available and

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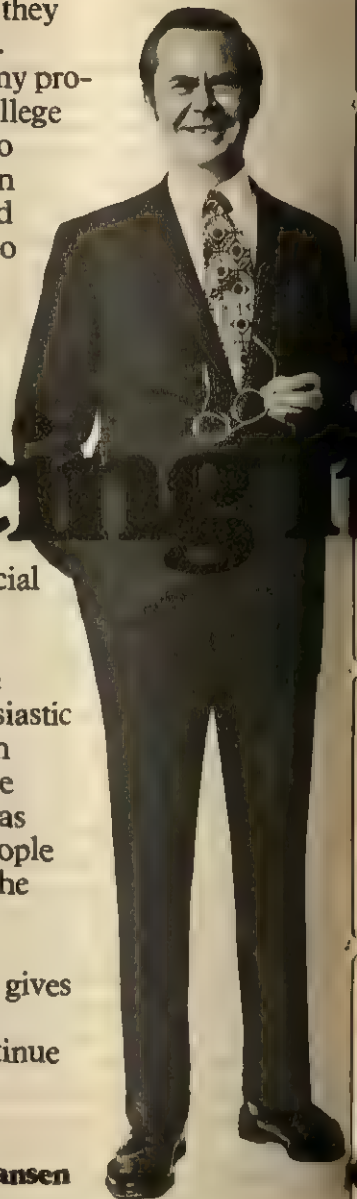
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also note what evidence is missing. Rarely have authors presented so many statistics in so readable a form. True, there are only 12 tables and 7 figures, but a host of facts are presented in narrative form. For example: "The last great change in the jobs of retail sales workers was the invention of the cash register in 1879" (p. 153).

Riders and drivers of the career education bandwagon will be divided in their reaction to the section on the impact of education and technology on the future of work. Contrary to the opinions of some, Levitan and Johnston see extended education as an "ageing vat" that permits the postponement of occupational decisions.

*Work Is Here to Stay, Alas* is, alas, a difficult book to review in the allotted number of words, since the appropriate review for readers of this journal would be one that causes every reader of the journal to read the book. Anyone who claims to have any interest in helping others with educational or vocational decisions should read it, for even one who disagrees with any of the authors' conclusions will find other points of interest and value. The perspective of Levitan and Johnston is refreshing, to say the least: "A surgeon doomed to perform appendectomies for his entire career would likely come to envy a butcher who at least could carve different cuts of meat" (p. 148). A book reviewer who could occasionally chance upon a Levitan and Johnston would not have cause to envy anyone.—Robert E. Wurtz, *Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan.*

**Occupational Careers: A Sociological Perspective** by Walter L. Slocum. Second edition. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1974. 349 pp. \$12.50 hardbound, \$3.95 paperback.

As background for the career aspect of their work, most counselors obtain some knowledge of the psychological theories of career development and have competence in the use of occupational information. Unlike their counterparts in certain European countries (France, for example), American counselors are generally not required to obtain knowledge about the economics and sociology of careers and occupational structure as part of their training. While it might be argued that there is no empirical evidence that such knowledge would improve the effectiveness

of American counselors, one cannot help but speculate about this issue when confronted by such phenomena as the growing teacher surplus.

*Occupational Careers* reviews the sociological literature on careers in work organizations. Thus, it emphasizes two perspectives on careers: one of disciplinary approach (sociology rather than psychology or economics) and one of content (workers as employees rather than as self-employed). The book begins with chapters reviewing the traditional and changing social meanings of work and the impact of science and technology on the occupational structure of agriculture and industry, particularly emphasizing the effects of automation. Following these is a particularly useful chapter (from the counselor's perspective), which presents a sociological analysis of the structural aspects of work organizations and their effects on such personnel practices as hiring, training, promoting, and firing. Examples from corporations, farms, and family businesses are given.

There follow chapters that review some of the traditional areas of occupational sociology, such as occupational status, occupational mobility, and professional and scientific careers. Interspersed among these chapters are several that survey concerns traditionally emphasized by economists, such as labor force and labor market trends and the relationship between education and career opportunities and rewards. Another chapter presents a sociological perspective on topics traditionally emphasized by vocational psychologists, such as career aspirations, decisions, and attainments. The concluding chapter covers career patterns and strategies in a variety of occupations, particularly the high-level ones that have been more thoroughly studied by sociologists.

As an overview of the sociological approach to the study of careers, this book provides counselors with another perspective on this area of professional concern. Each of the topics covered in this book is treated in greater depth elsewhere (in the writings of Miller and Form and of Everett C. Hughes and his students, for example). Nonetheless, Slocum affords insight into both the concerns and the foibles (such as the disproportionate emphasis on high-level careers) of occupational sociology.—David B. Hershenson, *Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago, Illinois.*

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**About Behaviorism** by B. F. Skinner. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1974. 256 pp. \$6.95 hardbound, \$3.95 paperback.

This is a book about a philosophy of science. The science—or discipline—is the experimental analysis of behavior. The philosophy is B. F. Skinner's radical behaviorism. It is at once a comprehensive account of Skinner's behaviorist philosophy and a hard-nosed, pungent, occasionally humorous response to certain of his critics.

Skinner begins by listing twenty common derogatory statements about behaviorism put forth by those critics. For example:

1. Behaviorism dehumanizes people. It is indifferent to the warmth and richness of human life.

2. Behaviorism views man as a puppet, robot, or machine.

3. Behaviorism is superficial and unable to deal with the depths of the mind or personality.

He then proceeds to roll up his sleeves and respond to these objections, moving loquaciously but vigorously through such topics as "The World Within the Skin," "Innate Behavior," "Thinking," "The Self and Others," "Motivations and Emotions." He breaks a great deal of "mentalist" furniture as he goes, while pausing occasionally to deliver a few retaliatory kicks in the shins. But the book is far more than simply a defensive response to criticism; Skinner takes these criticisms seriously and answers them while elaborating on a central theme of the relationships among natural selection, operant conditioning, and the evolution of social environments.

The "card-carrying" behaviorist (a term not applicable to all who call themselves behaviorists) should relish this book because of its stout defense of the behaviorist position and its reaffirmation of Skinner's fundamental insistence that most human behavior can be described and explained in terms of contingencies of reinforcement. Counselors of other persuasions may respond with less enthusiasm, for there is little comfort here, but all who aspire to consider themselves "informed though not believing" should consider the book "must" reading.

Firing-line counselors looking for immediate help with clients may find this book a bit too heavy and philosophical to be of much immediate value. Nevertheless, this does not diminish its potential value for practitioners

who strive to establish and examine their work in a coherent philosophical perspective. The book should be particularly useful to counselor educators who teach counseling theory and philosophy. Since the major issues of contention between "humanists" and behaviorists are distilled and the radical behaviorist vocabulary defined in exhaustive detail, the counselor trainee (and perhaps his or her professor) has the opportunity for a "meaningful encounter" with the philosophy of behaviorism.

*About Behaviorism* is an impressive display of intellect and scholarship. It is without a doubt a major contribution to the behavioral sciences.—Robert B. Benoit, *California State University, Los Angeles*.

**Rehabilitation of the Urban Disadvantaged** edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1973. 215 pp. \$9.75.

In the first chapter of this book, "Models and Approaches for Rehabilitation of the Urban Disadvantaged," an attempt is made to define the culturally disadvantaged and to present applicable rehabilitation techniques for the disadvantaged and exemplary programs developed in recent years to serve such individuals. I question the opinion of this chapter's authors, Charles W. Polance and John Kelly, that the culturally disadvantaged are people deprived of a culture. Everyone has a "culture," which may be described in a negative or positive perspective, depending on the source. The disadvantaged, therefore, are people who are victimized by society because of cultural differences and who are unable to translate into reality their potential for self-fulfilling economic and social roles.

In "Psycho-Social Factors in Considering the Vocational Potential of the Disadvantaged," C. D. Auvenshine notes many of the cultural norms and expectations in understanding and dealing with the disadvantaged in their environment. His notion that rehabilitation is middle-class and that traditional middle-class methods are inappropriate for the disadvantaged is valid. Auvenshine's suggestions for dealing with this problem in relation to counseling and rehabilitation outcomes are good and would be helpful to rehabilitation practitioners.

John Cody's chapter, "Educational and Psychological Appraisal of the Disadvan-

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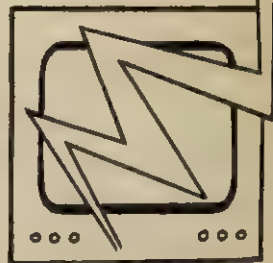
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tagged," suggests to me some serious concerns regarding assessment of the disadvantaged. He places undue emphasis on the use of standardized measures and fails to recognize the rich data that can be obtained from nonstandardized measures of assessing the educational, psychological, social, and vocational potential of the disadvantaged. He also fails to recognize that the standardized measures he advocates, regardless of how they are interpreted, are based on middle-class norms. Thus the applicability and usefulness of such instruments with the disadvantaged is uncertain.

One of the outstanding features in the book is Finckenauer's chapter, "Guided Group Interaction: A Rehabilitative Approach," which presents a viable operational model group approach using guided group interaction for dealing with problems affecting the rehabilitation of the disadvantaged. It contains informative illustrations as to how the model can be used for working with adolescents who are disadvantaged.

Section 2 of the book contains a series of case studies that are illustrative of the kind of disadvantaged people who are in need of rehabilitation services.

The book would be of some value in providing professionals with a basic introduction to the urban disadvantaged. But it should be noted that the chapters were written by white, middle-class professionals who may lack an authentic sensitivity, knowledge, and understanding of this population.—George E. Ayers, *Minnesota Metropolitan State College, St. Paul.*

**The Black Self** by Marvin D. Wyne, Kinnard P. White, and Richard H. Coop. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974. 114 pp. \$7.95 hardbound, \$3.50 paperback.

The authors of this little volume have set forth a rather absorbing analysis of the conditions that affect the development of self-concepts among black Americans. They have conducted a relatively thorough search of the theoretical and research literature and have generally succeeded in presenting a critical synopsis that is marked by substance and by ease of comprehension.

Of the book's five chapters, I found the third, "Personal Control and the Black Self," perhaps the most engaging. Not only is the discussion of the internal-external "locus of control" dimension of self-perception conceptually convincing, but I also found re-

freshly dispassionate the final caution concerning the psychological damage to the black self that will likely flow from "reverse discrimination" in favor of blacks.

Whether due to the multiple authorship or not, sophisticated readers may occasionally detect evidence of inconsistency in the text of *The Black Self*. For example, while in one place (pp. 32-33) it is wisely acknowledged that it is too early to determine what significant effects the black revolution of recent years is having on the developing self-images of today's black Americans, elsewhere (p. 89) it is asserted that recent research "provides hard evidence" that the black movement has been the occasion for positive self-image formation among black persons. (I believe that the latter generalization is extremely premature and will probably have to be softened considerably when the long-range behavioral data are evaluated.)

But these are only minor irritations. Overall, in an area in which there is no longer a paucity of useful materials, I have a generally favorable reaction to this small volume. While longtime students of the adjustment plight of black Americans will find nothing dramatically new inside its covers, counselors and educators will nevertheless find it a professionally stimulating overview.

Perhaps we should now move beyond race and focus directly on the adjustment problems spawned by low socioeconomic status in America. For, as Wyne, White, and Coop suggest, "Providing equal educational opportunity is not a racial problem so much as it is a class problem."—Ronald J. Rousseve, *University of Oregon, Eugene*.

**Severe Disabilities: Social and Rehabilitation Approaches** edited by Richard E. Hardy and John G. Cull. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 317 pp. \$12.75.

Medical information about 13 potentially catastrophic disablements and potential rehabilitation approaches are presented by the various authors in as many chapters, chapter lengths ranging from 11 and 13 pages for mental retardation and mental illness up to 34 and 38 pages for pulmonary and visual disabilities. Other chapters, in order of increasing length, concern diabetes, cerebral palsy, spinal cord injury, cancer, speech disorders, end stage renal failure, deafness, epilepsy, and rheumatoid arthritis. The final chapter is entitled "How Mechanical Assistive

Devices and Adaptive Behavior Can Aid in the Rehabilitation of Severely Disabled Persons."

This book is the latest of 24 books in the publisher's "Social and Rehabilitation Psychology Series," all but three of which were edited by the team of Cull and Hardy, with credit sometimes reversed, as in this instance. Cull once shared editorship with Craig R. Colvin, and two books in this series, both of which concern the medical and psychological aspects of disability, were edited by A. Beatrix Cobb. Hardy and Cull have also contributed one of the chapters in *Severe Disabilities*.

There are several good books on the impact of disability, of which this is the newest in my collection. There is much to be said for the consistency of single authorship of a volume, and in an edited book of this type one misses the value of interpretation accomplished through a unifying theoretical frame of reference. Also, the broad coverage of multiple aspects of 13 widely divergent impairments by necessity limits this book to a brief overview. In general, however, the authors have succeeded in preparing readable summaries that will be useful to all who do not need a more thorough treatment. The editors wisely did not impose a rigid format, but chapters usually cover such appropriate areas as description of the disability, behavioral dynamics, unique problems in adjustment, counseling considerations, vocational implications, special rehabilitation issues, and useful terminology.

School guidance workers especially should find this work worth reading and keeping for an easy reference to recent information on these common and serious handicaps.—George N. Wright, *University of Wisconsin, Madison*.

**Guidance Program Development and Management** by Herman J. Peters and Bruce Shertzer. Third edition. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1974. 615 pp. \$11.95.

The authors announce that this volume "is intended especially for those students (counselor-candidates, teachers, and prospective administrators) who are actively engaged in studying the development and management of guidance programs." They also state their assumption that readers will have completed a basic course in the principles of guidance.



The book's title suggests considerable attention to the organization and administration of guidance services. This, taken with the "prerequisite" course assumption, could lead one to expect a rather profound discussion. However, it appears that the authors have been most faithful to their intention to address a somewhat broad audience and to accommodate it with an unesoteric serving. Those seeking new and provocative proposals for the delivery of guidance services will need to look elsewhere.

Basically, the authors skillfully organize and present the guidance literature of the last 15 years. There are literally hundreds of citations. This alone attaches considerable value to the volume. In contradiction to the authors' suggestion, the text would make an excellent basic resource in a principles course. Also, the comprehensive survey of the literature recommends it as a fine tool for practicing counselors who would like an overview of professional developments of the past decade.

This is a third edition. Although there are many references to writings since 1970, the updating is not even across the chapters; some are a bit more dated than others. All of the chapters conclude with contemporary annotated bibliographies, and some chapters include a summary. The subject matter is not marshaled, by chapter, into an argument for a clearly obvious concept of guidance practice. Typical of the text are the chapters on the counseling service and on the vocational guidance service. Lengthy quotes appear, and there is little reference to pertinent theory but much exposition of program forms. For example, in the vocational guidance chapter, the NVGA "Standards for Use in Preparing and Evaluating Occupational Literature" are quoted verbatim for seven pages. By way of contrast, there is only very limited attention given to the major theories of counseling and career choice.

The volume is a useful summary of the literature of guidance. It would have been stronger if the authors' own blueprint for guidance services had been made more apparent, if the multitude of citations had been winnowed in support of their view, and if the important theories pertinent to the several major guidance areas had been more fully treated.—James W. Moore, *New York State Education Department, Albany.*

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**The Counselor and Military Service Opportunities** by Dean L. Hummel. One volume of "Special Topics in Counseling," Series VII of the *Guidance Monograph Series*, edited by Shelley C. Stone and Bruce Shertzer. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1973. 84 pp. \$1.80.

This is a timely monograph that should be available to every secondary school counselor. It is compact, to the point, easy to read, and loaded with factual information relative to career opportunities in the military. The author quickly states the purpose of the monograph when he says, "Students in America's schools should be afforded the same assistance and accurately interpreted information for careers in the armed forces as any other segment of the workforce." He goes on to point out that, with the all-volunteer force, students now have a greater freedom to choose and that the choice should be based on accurate information.

The author delineates the dichotomy that seems to exist between counseling theory and counseling practice when it comes to vocational counseling. As an example, he states that "we value the individual's potential and his right to make his own decisions. But we often show an unexpressed bias and a discomfort that prompts us to feel that a decision will be more valid if it matches the one we have selected for him." The author points out nine other such conflicts.

The monograph provides a listing of the types of enlistment an individual may select, the length of the enlistment, and various military publications that are available to counselors and students for further information relative to educational opportunities in the military. The appendix of the monograph is a list of armed forces occupational fields and related civilian occupations. Counselors should find this listing very useful when discussing with students the various training programs available in the military and the related civilian occupations. There are 16 pages of such listings.

In summary, the monograph is very handy and easy to use. All high school counselors should make this a part of their professional reading; they could very easily sit down and read it in one evening. A second purpose would be its use as a resource document for students who ask specific questions about the military. Chances are that the answers to the questions can be found in this monograph—

and if not in the monograph, then certainly in some other source listed in it.—*Joseph W. Constantine, Hartford Public Schools, Hartford, Connecticut.*

**Public Schools of Choice: A Plan for the Reform of American Education** by Mario D. Fantini. New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1973. 256 pp. \$8.95.

This compact and highly informative treatise on educational reform may disappoint the avant garde and sophisticated reformer in its somewhat superficial treatment of a major topic. It has just enough "prod and startle" capacity, however, to bestir the contented, or nonadvocate, educators.

Though there is little about guidance in this highly informative work, personnel and guidance workers should indeed read Fantini carefully. One of the major gaps in the general literature, particularly journals related to guidance, is the whole focus of "subject in field." Research has neglected the examination of students in settings, especially settings that were conceived in past decades to mass-merchandise all young Americans—with passive acquiescence and without resistance or reluctance—into the upper middle class.

The fact that 60 to 80 percent of most Americans, according to Fantini, like or at least do not dislike their schools is not enough either to fulfill the American dream or to leave us content that an adequate effort has been made for all young Americans.

Fantini fully believes that the American public schools can work. (Thank the Lord that someone does!) However disturbing the process, he feels that there are all-embracing, "simple," constructive, and fully achievable solutions, providing that the right to quality education is buttressed by *options of choice*. In this book we are given, in many instances, balanced and judicious treatment of alternatives, often described elsewhere in only pejorative terms. Voucher plans, street schools, schools-within-schools, and graded and nongraded precollege high schools are highlighted in terms of their essential ingredients.

The heart of Fantini's exposition rests largely in his chapters "Legitimizing of Public Schools of Choice" and "Implications of Public Schools of Choice." Minimal standards are set, the potential audience specified, and the need for parent as well as student involve-

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ment well reinforced. The incorporation of Philadelphia's criteria for proposals of alternative programs is an instructive inclusion.

The book's overriding weakness is the author's failure to deal with the causality issues. Why alternative education? What factors in curriculum content, teacher preparation, style, legal and administrative regulations, and institutional characteristics have blocked, depressed, or otherwise "turned off" a substantial number of students from the mainstream efforts of education? How profound or superficial are the causes? What psychological resources in educators can be positively reinforced for real—not illusory—reform?

Until such deeper probes and analyses are undertaken, educators are likely to continue to create crisis-stimulated add-ons and do patchwork and rearrangement without the comprehension, understanding, and major surgery that true and appropriate educational reform most certainly requires.—*Francis W. McKenzie, Brookline Public Schools, Brookline, Massachusetts.*

**Guidance Services in the Modern School** by Merle M. Ohlsen. Second edition. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1974. 500 pp. \$10.95.

Ohlsen identifies his book as one planned to define basic guidance services while aiding those in the helping process to use guidance principles in working effectively with clients. In the second edition, new chapters on elementary school counseling and community guidance services have been added, while several topics from the first edition have been updated and modernized.

Although a serious textbook, the style is intended to facilitate thinking for any and all who are resourceful enough to employ it. Chapters begin with overviews and end with summaries, discussion questions, and references. Ohlsen's chapters follow a logical sequence and include all the important aspects of a functioning guidance program. In addition, case studies demonstrate and clarify specific features of the helping relationship.

Recognizing the importance of career development as a lifelong process for every



human being, Ohlsen pays special attention to an area long forgotten but now gaining new focus in the 1970s—career development for women. By including several recent and important studies on female career development, he has done his homework in revising and enlarging the scope of the first edition.

A new chapter on community guidance services is one of the shortest in the book. Because of the overwhelming excess of trained teachers and counselors in the schools, this chapter deserves added information and emphasis, but this is a small criticism for an outstanding basic text.

I feel that Ohlsen has created a book that provides valuable data while encouraging revision of existing programs and adding new techniques and experiences. All those who read the second edition of *Guidance Services in the Modern School* are likely to enjoy it and benefit from it.—Barbara J. Gruen, Mark Twain Middle School, Yonkers, New York.

**The Organization of Pupil Personnel Programs: Issues and Practices** edited by Raymond N. Hatch. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Michigan State University Press, 1974. 433 pp. \$12.50.

The title conveys a rather accurate description of the contents, which include organization of pupil personnel programs, major professional issues relating to the programs, and a description of five pupil personnel programs in school districts ranging from the Bronx (in New York) to San Diego County (in California). The selected districts are large enough to provide adequate and complete pupil services, which should make the text valuable in a college course in pupil personnel services.

In addition to the specific programs described in the selected school districts, five other important areas are discussed, starting with program objectives and assessment—which is certainly appropriate, considering society's emphasis today on educational accountability. It might have been more appropriate from the administrative viewpoint to have provided more extensive coverage on this topic and also to have included personnel assessment as well as program assessment. Ethical and legal aspects are included, with major coverage devoted to the general area of communication between the pupil services worker and other persons. Also included are legal aspects of student records. The chapter on staff rules and relationships provides

additional information on organizational methods in districts of various sizes, with a full description of the basic services. Aspects of the instructional staff role are discussed in relation to work with counselors, psychologists, social workers, and other specialists in pupil personnel work.

School districts are described in a format that provides information on the community and schools in the pupil personnel program, including unique characteristics of the pupil personnel program in the district along with issues and program evaluation. Sufficient information is provided on the pupil services in the selected districts; in each case the description is authored by the pupil personnel administrator of the district.

I found this book to provide a very good description of pupil personnel programs and a clear discussion of many of the current issues in pupil services. It would appear to be very useful as a textbook in courses dealing with the broad spectrum of pupil services and the role of services within the total program. I found it of less value as a text on the principles of administration, although practicing administrators will find it very useful as a resource, especially in those areas in which they themselves do not have expertise.—John R. Gaskins, Darien Public Schools, Darien, Connecticut.

**The Counselor's Handbook** edited by Gail F. Farwell, Neal R. Gamsky, and Philippa Mathieu-Coughlan. One volume of the *Intext Series in Guidance and Counseling*, edited by Philip A. Perrone. New York: Intext Educational Publishers, 1974. 530 pp. \$15.00.

No, this is not for counselors; and no, this is not a "handbook." Since battle-weary practitioners are ever eager for a field manual, the misleading title of this important but limited volume must be promptly noted.

Rather than a "concise, ready reference book" (the Merriam-Webster definition), this is a symposium of relatively abstract, philosophic essays. And it is explicitly not for counselors. Farwell states at once that the focus is on counselor candidates, counselor employers, and counselor educators. Contributors are nearly all university-based teachers of counselors, and the nine chapter headings all imply or state that preparation is the name of the game.

How is this book important? It is a serious and exhaustive attempt to organize seminal ideas about preparing counselors, ideas that

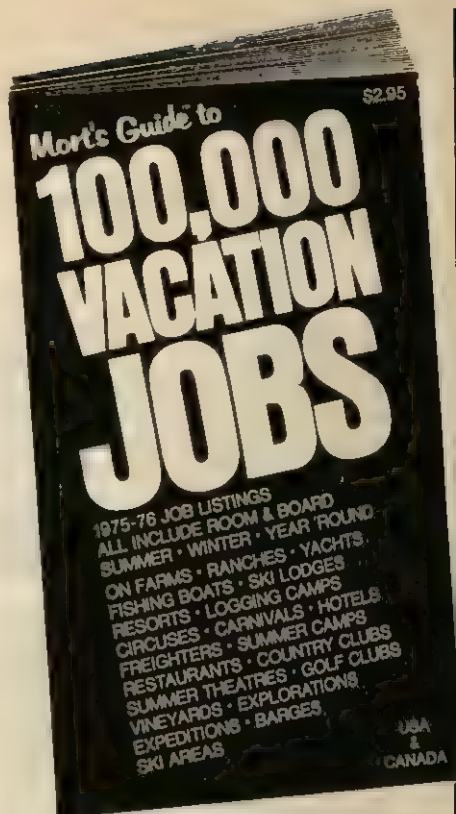
are current rather than republichings, and ideas that important people hold—people like Arbuckle, Bordin, Boy, Farwell, Gysbers, Kehas, Kirk, Patterson, Riccio, Roeber, Tiedeman, Tyler, Walz, and a score of others.

If the emphasis seems to be on the "establishment," let me make it clear that newer names with thoughtful things to say are also included. Royalties are to be divided between APGA and APA, so this is not just an anthology motivated by double-digit inflation. The selections express real differences in rationale and approach. All in all, trainers of counselors will want to give this a close look. And to the extent that practicing counselors in schools and colleges are truly hired to counsel and *do* counsel, they may find valid reading here.

How is this book limited? It is of, by, and for "preparationists" and not practitioners. The stress is frankly and only on "Theoretical, Professional and Ethical Issues" and almost nowhere on the pragmatic ones that consume most of a counselor's days—days busy giving help in institutional coping and manipulating and help in goal setting and resetting and rarely indeed calling for the leisurely subtleties of change agency that our university mentors would have us wield so deftly.

When Farwell says on page 2 that "it would be helpful for an employer to know what kind of preparation his employees have had" *without* going on to say "and for their preparers to know what the employer requires them to have," he is forecasting the unfortunate limits of the remainder of this incomplete effort. Perhaps Kehas (the only school person represented) comes closest to giving the day away: "It must be openly acknowledged that . . . most contemporary training programs [have] only a minimal relationship to current practice"; and he goes on to note that the building principal decides the duties of counselors and that "his ideas are often quite divergent from those held by counselor educators. . . . The development of the counseling function is inextricably related to the organization, structure and processes of schooling, and any change in it has implications for the whole."

Perhaps this is where a Volume 2 of *The Counselor's Handbook* ought to begin.—David W. Peterson, Watchung Hills Regional High School, Warren, New Jersey.



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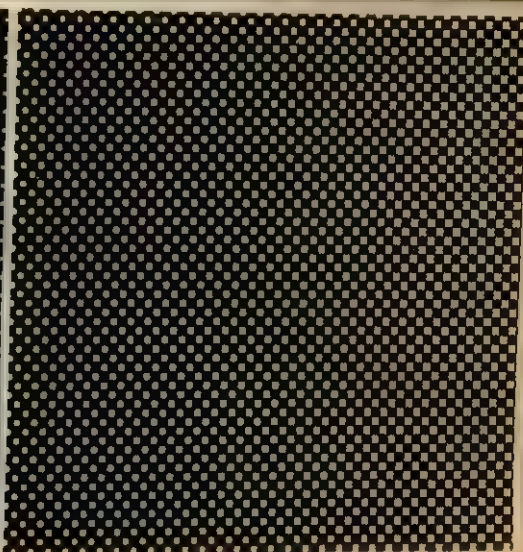
# The Personnel and Guidance Journal

volume 53

number 7

march 1975

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## **In This Issue:**

*helping as developmental  
existentialism . . . using  
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## **In the Field:**

*systems orientation . . . the  
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**Indexing:** The JOURNAL's annual index is published in the June issue. The JOURNAL is listed in *Education Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *College Student Personnel Abstracts*, *Sociology of Education Abstracts*, *Personnel Literature*, *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, *Mental Health Book Review Index*, *Poverty and Human Resources*, *Exceptional Child Education Abstracts*, and *Employment Relations Abstracts*. Book reviews are indexed in *Book Review Index*.

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Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered, U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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American Personnel and Guidance Association  
1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W.  
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# The Personnel and Guidance Journal®

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Volume 53, Number 7, March 1975

899(2)

24-7-75

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## ARTICLES

|                                                                                              |     |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| The Helping Process as Developmental Existentialism<br><i>Carol J. Guardo</i> .....          | 493 |
| Timeout: Guidelines for Its Selection and Use<br><i>Robert B. Benoit, G. Roy Mayer</i> ..... | 501 |
| Student Personnel Services in the University Without Walls<br><i>Robert Wishnoff</i> .....   | 507 |
| Career Planning Inventories: "Do-It-Yourself" Won't Do<br><i>Stephen J. Brown</i> .....      | 512 |
| Invited Comment: Dilemmas and Remedies<br><i>John L. Holland</i> .....                       | 517 |

## IN THE FIELD

|                                                                                                          |     |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Systems Orientation to a Systems College<br><i>James O. Hammons</i> .....                                | 521 |
| Alternate Sources of Information about the U.S. Military: A Bibliography<br><i>Alice Schaeffer</i> ..... | 526 |
| Recipe for an Interesting Career Presentation<br><i>Clifford G. Doll</i> .....                           | 531 |
| Memorial to Joseph Samler<br><i>Donald E. Super</i> .....                                                | 492 |

## POEMS

|                                                           |     |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Ode to an Anecdote<br><i>Margie Lynn Gutgold</i> .....    | 500 |
| For Bob, in Room Seventeen<br><i>Carol K. Watts</i> ..... | 511 |
| The Bandaïd Man<br><i>Samuel T. Gladding</i> .....        | 520 |

## DEPARTMENTS

|                              |     |
|------------------------------|-----|
| Feedback .....               | 488 |
| Etcetera .....               | 534 |
| Book Reviews .....           | 536 |
| Guidelines for Authors ..... | 548 |

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# Feedback

Letters for Feedback should be under 300 words. Those selected for publication may be edited or abridged by the Journal staff.

## Limitations of the Baseline Technique

The "multiple baseline" research technique presented by Jerry A. Schmidt (November 1974 P&G) is ingenious and well reported. Nevertheless, it cannot, as he claims, enable the counselor to "determine if, when, and why he or she is being effective" unless it goes beyond what was described and becomes what the technique is offered as a substitute for: the controlled experiment.

When before-after comparisons are made, the "why" of any change remains open to multiple interpretations unless every explanation but one can be ruled out. That can be done only when the law of the independent variable is followed in one way or another: *Let only one thing vary at a time*. A client typically spends about one-fiftieth of his or her waking hours with the counselor. Can the latter safely say that no relevant variable changed during those other hours?

Aside from that difficulty, there is the one cited by Schmidt of knowing "exactly what it was we did that helped." It is not apparent that the baseline technique, in itself, eliminates this problem. (It strikes me after twenty years in the field that perhaps what helps a person is almost any form of paying sustained friendly attention to the person.)

Schmidt is to be commended for his thoughtful development. It certainly deserves further investigation. It also seems important to point out that it cannot quite do what he claims for it.

ROBERT B. NORDBERG  
Marquette University  
Milwaukee, Wisconsin

## "Small Studies" Are Needed

I would like to respond to a recent Feedback letter by Miller (November 1974) concerning the mission of the P&G JOURNAL. Briefly, Miller restated the issue of the JOURNAL's focus: whether it should be research or "practitioner" oriented. Miller's main thesis was that the P&G JOURNAL reaches out beyond "little studies" to consider the broader issues

of the times, that the profession has no time for isolated scientists "searching for abstract truths," and that "small, abstract, 'scientific' studies do not relate to our guidance profession."

May I point out that "small studies" do relate to our profession; indeed the profession rests on and moves ahead because of such studies. Whether or not the P&G JOURNAL should be a conduit for research studies is debatable. My point is that if the attitude of professionals is to cry only for an answer, any answer, or to state questions which are for all practical purposes unanswerable, that attitude will ultimately be destructive to the profession.

Issues and opinions are well and good, but without being put to the test, researched if you will, they remain only so many words. Effective methods in counseling can be effective only if they can be shown to be so. It is only because practitioners have been willing to put their assumptions to the test that we do have effective counseling methods.

DANIEL W. COOK  
University of Arkansas, Fayetteville

## Corrections Program at Federal City College

I felt the Special Feature in the October issue of P&G was informative and progressive, and I could well understand your enthusiasm about its publication; but I protest!

I protest that in the entire treatment of the subject of corrections and correctional programs no mention was made of the excellent Lorton Project we have here at Federal City College. I'm genuinely dismayed. Ray Allen spent over three pages discussing the New-Gate Program pioneered by Gaddis and never mentioned that Federal City College has taken the concept one or two steps further.

In the Lorton Project, which has been functioning for seven years, inmates are brought to the college campus from the reformatory to attend classes each day. They return to the reformatory each evening. I could not begin

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be with you. I am convinced that the United States has the right to be a part of the world. I have seen the evidence that in the country are immense resources of the land and the people. I have seen the evidence that the people are the best of the people and the people are the best of the people.

[illegible][illegible]

1. What is the purpose of the study?  
 2. What are the research questions?  
 3. What is the significance of the study?  
 4. What are the limitations of the study?  
 5. What are the conclusions of the study?

## More on Country-Rated Counting

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1. The first part of the document is a list of names and titles, including "The Hon. Mr. Justice" and "The Hon. Mr. Justice".

**THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO**

2.  $\frac{1}{x^2} = x^{-2}$ . Then  $\frac{d}{dx} x^{-2} = -2x^{-3} = -\frac{2}{x^3}$ .

3.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ .

4.  $\frac{d}{dx} e^{ax} = ae^{ax}$ .

5.  $\frac{d}{dx} \sin(ax) = a \cos(ax)$ .

6.  $\frac{d}{dx} \cos(ax) = -a \sin(ax)$ .

7.  $\frac{d}{dx} \tan(ax) = a \sec^2(ax)$ .

8.  $\frac{d}{dx} \cot(ax) = -a \csc^2(ax)$ .

9.  $\frac{d}{dx} \sec(ax) = a \sec(ax) \tan(ax)$ .

10.  $\frac{d}{dx} \csc(ax) = -a \csc(ax) \cot(ax)$ .

11.  $\frac{d}{dx} \arcsin(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .

12.  $\frac{d}{dx} \arccos(u) = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .

13.  $\frac{d}{dx} \arctan(u) = \frac{1}{1+u^2} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .

14.  $\frac{d}{dx} \operatorname{arccot}(u) = \frac{-1}{1+u^2} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .

15.  $\frac{d}{dx} \operatorname{arcsec}(u) = \frac{1}{|u|\sqrt{u^2-1}} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .

16.  $\frac{d}{dx} \operatorname{arccsc}(u) = \frac{-1}{|u|\sqrt{u^2-1}} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .

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Side turn, too. The system seems to be mostly in your call for original material and doesn't expect to receive much of it (other than what could possibly come from)

MISSISSIPPI  
GOVERNMENT  
PARK

### New Concepts in Nursing Programs

It was with some degree of personal concern  
that I read that there would be the  
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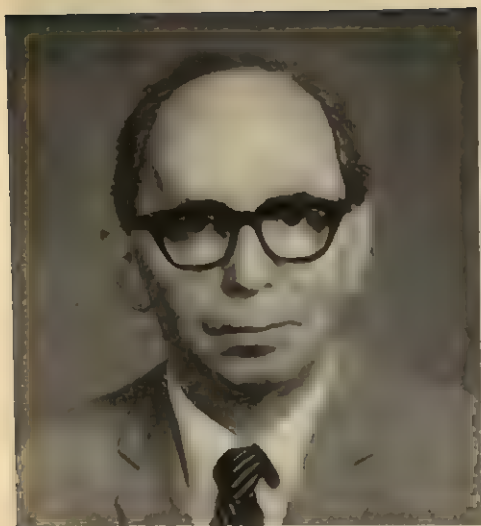
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**Joseph Samler**

*October 25, 1910–November 14, 1974*

Joseph Samler served as editor of the *P&G JOURNAL* from 1955 to 1963, while also serving as the chief of vocational and rehabilitation counseling (under varying titles) in the Veterans Administration's Central Office. In his editorial capacity, he led APGA in developing the *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL* into a widely read, scholarly, and eminently professional journal, at a time when APGA itself was experiencing major growth and becoming a vital force for the improvement of the profession and of guidance services in schools, colleges, and community agencies. In his VA capacity, he led in the upgrading and strengthening of counseling and rehabilitation services for veterans at a time when many people thought that these programs would wither away, when in fact they needed—thanks to the Korean War—to be expanded and improved.

In losing Joseph Samler, even though he retired from the VA in 1973, we have lost a leading contributor to our field. His retirement was an active retirement, for with the improving health that so often comes to people who retire constructively, he built up a significant private practice, read widely and deeply, and continued to write. His professional knowledge and perspective were valued by many, and his involvement in the Washington scene led many of us to continue to seek him out. His constructive retirement, like his more active earlier career, was facilitated by an informed and perceptive wife, two daughters (one of whom pursues a successful career in medicine, the other living nearby with her husband and two children, who are a source of great pride), and a home in which Joe and Esther generously entertained visiting friends and colleagues—a home in which Joe did fine cabinet and carpentry work, providing a beautiful place in which to live, read, write, and share a rich life with friends and family.

Dr. Samler, Joe, combined in a rare way the reality orientation of the vocational counselor, the resourcefulness of the rehabilitation counselor, and the sensitivity and insights of the clinical psychologist. His writings reflect this multipotentiality, this multicapability. A good many people are active in the world of work thanks to this distinguished, modest, insightful, and persistent counselor and to the leadership he provided in conceptualizing and realizing the vocational rehabilitation of the severely disabled.

It was my personal good fortune to work with Joe on the *JOURNAL*, to serve on his VA Advisory Committee on Counseling, to exchange ideas often by mail, by phone, and over lunch or dinner, and to enjoy the warm hospitality of his home—my personal good fortune, and that of many others. We will all miss Joseph Samler.—*Donald E. Super.*



# the helping process as developmental existentialism

CAROL J. GUARDO

Carol J. Guardo is Dean of the College at Utica College of Syracuse University in Utica, New York.

As practitioners, most of us perform our helping roles making little or no effort to state explicitly the principles that guide us. Yet we presume that these principles are coherent and integrated to the point of providing meaning to our helping interactions and interventions. One way to test this presumption is to attempt an articulation of our own theoretical perspectives. These perspectives are significant influences on the helping process because practical therapeutic techniques are derived from our theoretical orientations. As helpers, we use the practice derived from the theory to aim at improving the behavioral conditions and personality states of our clients.

The position presented here is labeled *developmental existentialism*. It is one theoretical approach to the helping process and, as such, suggests practical therapeutic strategies and makes use of the helping relationship as the bridge between theory and practice. This position has as its underpinnings my doctoral specialty in developmental psychology, five years of clinical interactions with university students, and several years of teaching people who were training to be helpers.

## PERSONAL CONVICTIONS

My background in developmental psychology led to my conviction that the helping process is a process of develop-

*The purpose of this article is to present a new orientation toward the helping process in order to suggest additional practical strategies for helpers. The position is labeled "developmental existentialism" because it places existential principles within a developmental framework. The author examines the general features, assumptions, defining dimensions, and propositions of the position. The perspective of this new approach enables clients to be assessed in terms of their degree of health, types of anxieties, motivational levels, means of coping, and developmental strengths and weaknesses.*

ment. It is a process in which one person, the helper, assists another person, the client, to realize his or her developmental potentials. The client, as a human behavior, possesses potentials for being and doing that need to be actualized or developed if the person is to be fulfilled. Such a view of the client is central to humanistic-existential psychologies, positions with which my assumptions about human behavior and the human behavior are most closely aligned.

Another conviction that prompts the position of developmental existentialism is the idea that a helper's orientation serves as the ground against which the client is seen as the figure. Projecting the behavior and condition of a client against this background is a means of generating strategies for helping that client. Based on our own personal characteristics, all of us as helpers have personalized the knowledge we have gained about human behavior and fit that knowledge to the immediate clinical situation. Thus, each of us has a unique perspective on the helping process. By sharing these perspectives, we broaden our own orientations and consequently increase the number of helping strategies that we can try to use in our relationships with our clients.

Developmental existentialism, examined in the remainder of this article, revolves around the notion that our orientations as professional helpers are products of what we believe about the human organism, what we assume about human behavior, and what attitudes we have about changing the behavior of others in a clinical relationship.

## GENERAL FEATURES

Developmental existentialism makes positive mental health the norm and the point of departure for the helping process by treating the persons being helped as potentially healthy or healthier—not as patients with an illness or as behaviors with a nonadaptive repertoire of re-

sponses. Also, it focuses on fostering the optimum growth or development of individuals and does not seek merely to bring them to the level of healthy functioning that is defined as a lack of illness. Finally, and most important in value terms, the approach seeks to preserve the individuality and uniqueness of each person in the context of shared human characteristics.

## Some Definitions

The orientation is defined as "developmental existentialism." The term *existentialism* in this definition encompasses those psychologies variously considered to be humanistic, phenomenological, or existential. Despite many differences among them, these systems share a common feature: They place the locus for the analysis of behavior in the center of the experiencing individual and consequently set the task of helpers as one in which they must, to some extent, be able to assume the internal or experiential frame of reference of the person being helped.

The adjective *developmental* may seem especially incongruous as a description of existentialism because the system is a psychology of the adult human being whose sequence of development is not explicitly identified. That which has brought the person to his or her present, here-and-now, existential state is largely left to conjecture. Yet there are theoretical elements in existentialism that generate a rationale for a developmental framework. For example, the principle of contemporaneity, which pervades these psychological approaches, allows that events and developments of the past (as well as those anticipated in the future) are relevant to the understanding of an individual's behavior if they are functional determinants of present behavior or attitudes.

Let us use, as an illustration, a young woman whose father deserted her. If she cites this experience as a reason for her inability to sustain a relationship with a

young man, for fear of being deserted again, then the helper must address two issues: the residual psychological effects of the client's experience of desertion and the client's present inability to sustain a heterosexual relationship. The helper should address these issues in their respective temporal contexts and give attention to the progression of interpersonal development that the client has undergone between these times.

### **Combining Development and Existentialism**

Existentialism is in need of a developmental framework in another way. The system attributes to every human organism possibilities for being and doing (some of which are species-specific and some of which are person-specific) and attempts to judge the degree to which the individual has realized them. This evaluation of the degree to which an individual has actualized potentials must be based on some knowledge of normative developmental information if it is to have any logical validity. In short, the developmental data serve as the standards of reference for judgments concerning the course, pace, and scope of the client's development. If the young woman in the above illustration were twenty years old, her situation would be interpreted quite differently from the way it would be if she were twenty-eight, since the developmental expectations for interpersonal maturity vary widely for these ages.

### **ASSUMPTIONS**

Developmental existentialism places existential principles in a developmental framework. Development itself is viewed as a lifelong process of behavioral evolution. Development, or the growth of the individual, is assumed to occur in a sequence of psychological stages that consist of both qualitative and quantitative changes in behavior (Piaget 1967).

Since behavior change defines de-

velopment, every attempt is made to give behavioral definitions to developmental and existential constructs. This approach is somewhat foreign to existential psychology, but adding a behavioral ingredient to the existential model resolves the ambiguity of the model's constructs by giving them clear-cut behavioral referents. For example, if the existential

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**"This approach to the helping process is health-oriented. The primary emphasis in initial helping interactions, therefore, is on the identification of already developed strengths."**

---

phrase "potential for interpersonal adequacy" were coined, it would take on meaning when the behaviors of meeting and conversing with members of the opposite sex were used as evidence of the realization of the potential.

### **DEFINING DIMENSIONS**

Existential principles, their behavioral definitions, and a developmental framework are the elements of developmental existentialism. Based on these elements, several features of the approach deal with the potentials for health, growth, and individuality found in the person seeking help. These features are the defining dimensions of this orientation toward behavior and behavior change.

#### **Degree of Health**

This approach to the helping process is health-oriented. Each person who comes for help is presumed to have some capacity for healthy living. The primary emphasis in initial helping interactions, therefore, is on the identification of already developed strengths, such as constructive coping mechanisms. Also identified are developmental potentials—in



any area of growth—that might offset the personality weaknesses, growth lags, and situational difficulties that prompted the person to seek help. The basic judgment made concerns the individual's place on a continuum from healthy to unhealthy and the nature of the dynamics enhancing or interfering with movement toward the healthy pole. Only secondarily are behavioral anomalies diagnosed. The emphasis is not on a search for abnormality but rather on the identification of possibilities for development.

The healthy-unhealthy continuum is viewed from two perspectives: as it applies to the routine, day-to-day level of functioning and as it applies to the level of actualization toward which the individual is presumed to be striving. For example, a young man with artistic ability may easily be able to actualize his creative talent in his etchings or watercolors but encounter great difficulty in his efforts to achieve a sense of belonging with his nonartistic roommates. The degree of discrepancy between the two levels of

developmental achievements the person has attained. In accord with the principle of contemporaneity, a behavioral history is not explicitly sought unless the individual's past has relevance to his or her present behavior or experiences. One clue to its relevance is the client's describing his or her present behavior or experiences as different from those in the past. For instance, one might state: "I never had trouble making friends when I was in high school, but since I came to college I just can't seem to relate to anyone." With this kind of cue, helpers can seek to identify the nature and extent of the differences in the client's social behaviors and social situations, being extremely sensitive to the determinants of change that have come into play in the intervening time.

A survey of the behavioral repertoire is supplemented by the helper's eliciting information about the existential situation presently surrounding the client and with which the client interacts. Special attention is given not only to the immediate interpersonal context and sources of personal support but also to the pattern of interpersonal development as manifested by the types of experienced relationships and their degree of intimacy (Sullivan 1953). For instance, a college-age client whose interpersonal context includes warm parental and filial relationships as well as close friendships with members of both sexes is existentially quite different from a client whose strongest relationship is with a favorite teacher who provided nurturance during early adolescent years, when the client's familial relationships were disintegrating.

---

**"If they use that apprehension as a motivation for study, they have converted a potentially debilitating factor into a developmental incentive."**

---

health provides the basis for a prognosis, since the wider the discrepancy the slower and more difficult will be the progress toward therapeutic (development-enhancing) goals.

### **Scope of Behavioral Repertoire**

A second general feature of developmental existentialism is represented by an attempt, in initial sessions, to obtain a sampling of the individual's behavioral repertoire that is extensive enough to provide an adequate picture of the full range of response capacities and de-

### **Individual Style**

One feature of this approach that is distinctively existential is the attempt to see beyond the presenting problems or complaints in order to become acquainted with the client's individuality, or personality style. Many people present the same problem, but each experi-

ences and responds to it in an individual way. "Style" would seem to be the key to an orientation toward the individual and his or her personal history. Style is expressed in many ways—in linguistic patterns, appearance, bearing, reaction patterns, temperament, gestures, postures, and facial expressions—and all these amalgamate to become a unique combination that is the individual's own. Sensitivity to and readings of individual style provide a means of entrance into the phenomenological world of the other; they constitute a basis for the helper's efforts to appreciate the person coming for help in terms of the person's own frame of reference.

Perfect congruence or overlap of the two experiential fields—that of the helper and that of the client—need not and actually cannot be achieved. The overlap should be sufficient, however, to allow communication to be effective. The degree of difficulty in communicating is therefore a ready index to the adequacy of the degree of congruence. In addition, sensitivity to style is helpful because it sets limits on the kind and degree of behavioral change a helper can expect to achieve with a client. Changes involving radical alterations in style are difficult, if not impossible, to effect; changes consonant with style are more readily facilitated. Clearly, the behavioral goal of getting individuals to assert themselves intellectually by classroom participation, socially by initiating conversations, and emotionally by expressing anger or frustration is far more difficult to achieve with mild-mannered, soft-spoken persons than with gregarious but developmentally slow persons.

### **SPECIFIC POSTULATES**

Only a small number of the postulates that could be borrowed from existential or developmental psychology are examined here, since they are deemed central to an understanding of developmental existentialism.

### **Anxiety and Growth**

The first proposition is that growth is an anxiety-producing process and that therefore development necessitates the tolerance of anxiety. This position is not peculiar to existential psychology, but it becomes a more useful statement when the existential distinction between growth facilitation and neurotic anxiety is made (May 1950).

Neurotic anxiety is counterproductive to development. It interferes with normal functioning, has irrational features, and is ultimately debilitating. It blocks forays into the unknown, untried, or undeveloped areas of behavior and experience. By contrast, growth-producing anxiety facilitates developmental extensions; it allows one to risk the security of what he or she already is and can do in order to take the chance of becoming and doing more. It enhances normal functioning and ultimately leads to fulfillment in terms of the realization of developmental possibilities. For example, being afraid to register for difficult academic subjects may prevent students from exploring their range of intellectual potentials to the extent that they narrow their options for professional preparation. However, if they do register for academically challenging courses despite the fact that they feel some anxiety about achieving well, and if they use that apprehension as a motivation for study, they have converted a potentially debilitating factor into a developmental incentive.

In a practical situation, a helper whose approach is influenced by the existential view of the role of anxiety in development would make an evaluation of the client's anxieties by trying to determine the extent to which they are neurotic and the extent to which they are facilitative of growth. The helper would then try to ascertain how the neurotic anxieties could be minimized and the growth-facilitating anxieties actualized. Even tentative solutions are initial guides to a



"treatment" (development-enhancing) program.

### **Growth and Deficiency Motivation**

A second postulate is that motivation for behavior is of two kinds: that which merely fills a deficiency at one level of functioning and that which moves the individual to a higher level of growth. Deficiency needs are assumed to fit the tension-reduction model; something—whether physiological, social, or psychological—is missing and detracts from the individual's well-being. The deficiency generates a tension, which is reduced or eliminated when the need is satisfied. Meeting such needs sustains the individual at homeostatic levels but does not facilitate growth. For instance, providing human infants with a minimal amount of food to eliminate the tensions of hunger will sustain the infants, but their growth will be facilitated only when that minimal level is exceeded. Thus, development occurs when growth needs are activated by the satisfaction of the deficiency needs and the organism strives for or experiences a need for something more (Maslow 1962). Such striving is thought to be characteristic of human organisms as viewed from the existential frame of reference.

A further notion may be added to the preceding concept of motivation: that needs are arranged hierarchically in terms of their possibility of achievement and their implications for the survival and well-being of the organism (Maslow 1970). That is, lower-order needs, such as physiological needs, require relative satisfaction before the person moves on to higher-order needs, such as those for feelings of belonging and self-esteem. If the hierarchy is interpreted in developmental terms, its arrangement becomes plausible, and developmental data confirm the general succession of needs within the hierarchy. Infants require physiological satisfactions, children have autonomy and belonging needs, adoles-

cents struggle with self-esteem and competency needs, and adults face the challenge of the self-actualization of their potentials.

If the hierarchy is interpreted in both deficiency and growth terms, many variations on motivational themes become possible, and wide-ranging individual differences in motivational dynamics can be accommodated. Most variations or individual patterns show that any set of motivational dynamics contains at any given time a mixture of deficiency and growth needs as well as a mixture of motivational levels within the hierarchy.

### **Coping and Defense Mechanisms**

Another postulate offered within the existential framework is that behavioral coping mechanisms are necessary for adequate functioning in daily life because frustration, tension, developmental challenges, and environmental blocks to behavioral goals are encountered by all people. Coping devices are different from defense mechanisms, however: Coping implies the constructive handling of difficulties leading to their resolution; defense implies handling that diminishes the emotional impact of difficulties but does not resolve the issue generating the impact. Consider, for example, the relative merits of displacing frustration on a spouse because "things aren't going well" as opposed to adapting a problem-solving approach to the frustrating situation.

Most persons seeking help have a complex array of coping devices, defense mechanisms, and reinforcers. The helper must evaluate the nature, frequency of use, and interrelatedness of the elements of this array. If there is a serious lack of reinforcement, then rewards need to be developed and provided. If there is a serious lack of coping devices, then such devices need to be inculcated, and recourse to the exercise of defense mechanisms needs to be discouraged and diminished.



The behavioral approach (Skinner 1953) is particularly useful in assisting the description of the environmental context of an individual's behavior, the reinforcement and support sources within the environment, and even the self-reinforcing resources the person possesses. A distinction must be made, however, between those reinforcements—external or internal to the organism—that facilitate growth and those that sustain nonadaptive behaviors. The former require emphasis, the latter removal or substitution.

### The Developmental Sequence

A last postulate added to existential psychology and derived from developmental positions maintains that each area of growth or functioning follows identifiable, systematic sequences. Placing an individual's developmental achievements in the context of defined progressions of physical, cognitive, moral, interpersonal, and social-emotional growth makes possible an evaluation of the individual's developmental advances, lags, blocks, and derailings. Careful identification of the developmental areas in which these occur, the discrepancies across areas, and the means of correcting any developmental anomalies greatly assists the course of the helping process. One of the common developmental discrepancies encountered among talented university students, for example, is the discrepancy between intellectual development and emotional development. One cannot be assumed from the presence of the other.

A corollary notion is that each phase of development in each particular growth area carries with it its distinctive developmental challenges for achieving certain goals, such as autonomy, identity, or intimacy. The idea of a progression of developmental challenges, which vary in degree of appropriateness during certain developmental phases, makes possible several kinds of psychological scoring of developmental successes and failures.

They can be scored in terms of the appropriateness of the developmental challenges presently being confronted by the individual, as the accumulation of a developmental backlog of achievements on which to base new growth or becoming, or as an index of developmental minuses to be overcome. Wide individual variation is encountered when such an approach is taken.

### CONCLUSION

Developmental existentialism permits an assessment of the client from several perspectives; the client's degree of health, the relationship between the client's growth-producing and neurotic anxieties, the relationship between the client's growth and deficiency needs, the client's coping and defense mechanisms, and the client's developmental strengths and weaknesses. Even the attempt to draw up profile sketches of a sample of clientele seeking help shows that these evaluations yield a useful base for the understanding and guidance of helping interactions. Because no two profiles are exactly the same, developmental existentialism seems to have as its chief merit the capacity to preserve the existential quality and individuality of the client. And because no profile is entirely unlike another, it also allows the recognition of the common dimension of humanity that all persons share. ■

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## Ode to an Anecdote

My doctors say I'm A-OK;  
my shrink says that I'm anxious.  
They tested me at school today  
'cause teachers say I'm f-rankish.

My teachers say I have no drive;  
they think I'm smart but lazy.  
They keep a record of my files  
that frankly drives me crazy.

They say they're only anecdotes,  
that what they write won't matter.  
But as I start each higher grade  
my folder's getting fatter.

Before they even know me,  
my teachers simply loathe me.  
They must have read those anecdotes;  
the way they act just shows me.

That school is like the FBI  
and CIA together.  
The day I had my first exam  
my file began to fester.

The conferences, psychologists,  
the block designs, the testing,  
to find out what my brain contained  
and how much it was wasting.

My interests, my attitudes,  
my IQ, my potential—  
Who cared if the results were true  
or only incidental?

I have a name and number now  
and amply have been rated.  
My records have me scarred for life  
because I'm educated.

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# timeout: guidelines for its selection and use

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*This article focuses on the use of "timeout" as a classroom behavior modification technique, examining whether or not the counselor should suggest its use in a given situation and how to insure its maximal effectiveness once it has been chosen as an appropriate procedure. The authors present some questions to be considered when deciding whether or not to use timeout and give guidelines for its best use. The questions and guidelines are presented in a flow chart format in order to facilitate easy and quick use by practitioners.*

Several articles in the guidance literature (e.g., Briskin & Anderson 1973; Sulzer, Mayer & Cody 1968) have described how to use timeout in the classroom. They have correctly illustrated the use of timeout but have not cautioned against its inappropriate use. We have elsewhere described the case of "Bad-News Bernie," a third grader whose spitball throwing served as an illustration for when *not* to recommend extinction as a classroom intervention procedure. We recommended timeout—removing the opportunity for reinforcement—as a possible alternative (Benoit & Mayer 1974).

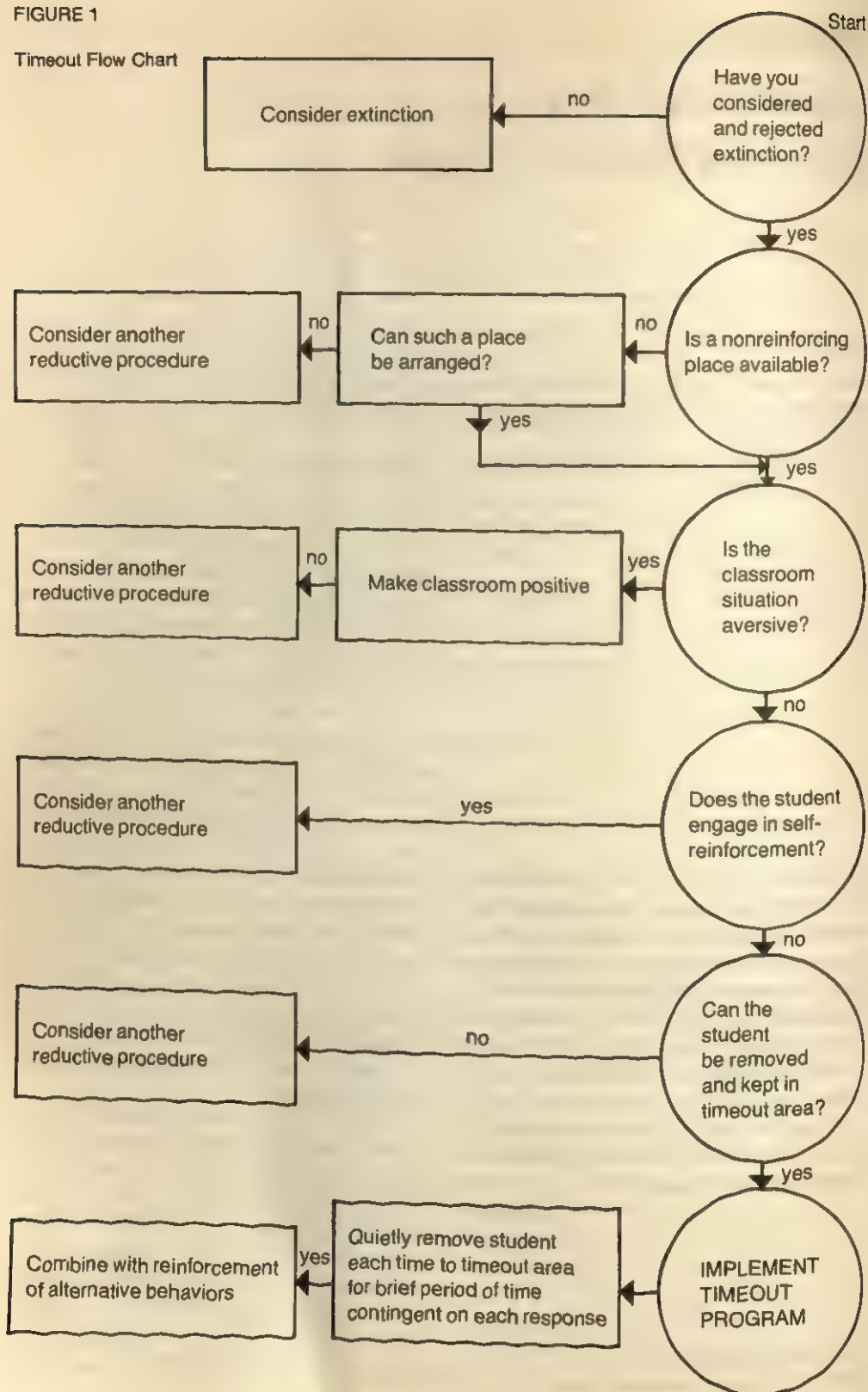
The purpose of this article is to give counselors who consult with teachers a guide for determining the appropriateness of using timeout in a given classroom situation and to discuss how timeout can be applied with maximal effectiveness. A flow chart (see Figure 1) is presented, along with an illustrative consultation session between the counselor-consultant and Bernie's teacher, Ms. Jones; these should serve as rapid, systematic guides for counselors who might recommend the use of timeout as an approach for reducing undesired classroom behavior.

By way of definition, timeout involves removing access to the sources of reinforcement for a limited time period contingent on a particular action. Detailed explanations of timeout are available in several publications (Krumboltz & Krumboltz 1972; Sulzer & Mayer 1972). The chief difference between extinction and timeout is that in extinction reinforcement is withheld for a particular



FIGURE 1

Timeout Flow Chart



behavior, while in timeout the student is denied access to all sources of reinforcement through either transferring the student to a nonreinforcing situation or removing the source of reinforcement from the present situation.

## **CONSIDERATIONS IN SELECTING TIMEOUT**

Let us return to Bernie, his teacher (T), and the counselor-consultant (C-C). The counselor has explained to Ms. Jones why extinction was not effective in reducing spitball throwing (which was imitated by classmates because it was ignored by the teacher), and the counselor has a timeout flow chart.

**C-C:** Ms. Jones, Bernie will be better served if we can use an approach that will immediately stop his disruption of the class. We can do this by removing him temporarily.

**T:** Oh, you mean send him to the office. I've tried that. It doesn't work.

**C-C:** I know, and I think I can tell you why. I happened to see Bernie on a day you sent him to the office. Let's look at the second question on our flow chart.

### **Is a Nonreinforcing Place Available?**

**C-C:** When I witnessed Bernie's ejection, I decided to watch what he would do. As he headed for the office, the friendly custodian stopped him and joked with him about going to the office so often. Then Bernie met Ziggy, who was just returning from banishment to the office, and they exchanged bubble gum cards. Then Ms. Shortskirt, the secretary, gave him a warm welcome and sat him down right by her chair. Need I mention the heart-to-heart chat with the principal? Ms. Jones, all the other kids were working while Bernie was having a ball!

**T:** So?

**C-C:** So we need a nonreinforcing place—a quiet spot that doesn't serve as

an inadvertent "reward" for disrupting the class. You might say we need a blah place where Bernie will be, shall we say, temporarily neutralized. It isn't punishing, but it isn't fun either. It serves the function of removing Bernie from the reinforcing consequences of his behavior. It gives him a chance to cool off.

**T:** Oh, I see. Sending him to the office could be fun for him and act as an incentive to misbehave.

**C-C:** Very possible. Do you have a quiet place available?

**T:** Yes, in one corner of the room. I can remove several posters and some play materials and convert it into a very bland cool-off place.

**C-C:** Great, Ms. Jones! Anyplace will be fine, as long as it effectively serves to remove Bernie from the source of the reinforcing consequences of his disrupting the class. For example, some teachers use the cloakroom area, others partition off a section in the rear of the room. In some cases it's enough to have the youngster simply put his or her head down on the desk. With other children it has been necessary to find a small, empty room. For Bernie, your idea should work very well.

**T:** Sounds easy and simple. But so did ignoring. Is there anything else on that flow chart I should know about?

**C-C:** Very much so. Tell me, Ms. Jones, does Bernie enjoy being in your class?

**T:** Yes. He likes school, by and large. Seldom misses a day. He seems to enjoy his assignments, and he has many friends in class.

**C-C:** Good. Look at the next question on the flow chart.

### **Is the Classroom Situation Aversive?**

**C-C:** It's important that Bernie like being in your class. What do you think might happen if he disliked your class and got sent out of it when he was disruptive?

**T:** He might continue to be disruptive in

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**"In extinction, reinforcement is withheld for a particular behavior, while in timeout the student is denied access to all sources of reinforcement."**

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order to escape. I could be playing into his hands without being aware of it.

**C-C:** That's right. Behavior that produces escape from something unpleasant is likely to occur again, even though it may be a self-defeating kind of thing to do in the long run.

**T:** Now that you point these things out, I can think of any number of children I have seen who have been repeatedly sent out—to the office, outside in the hall, and so on. The more they were sent out, the worse they became. None of us could figure it out. It didn't seem logical. I can see now, though, that these children may have had fun where they went or may have gotten out of a situation they found to be distressing. Maybe some of us need to take a look at how interesting it is to be in our classes.

**C-C:** Could be. Why do you think the teachers kept doing it even though the youngsters got worse?

**T:** Good question! Aha—because removing those children permitted the teachers to escape temporarily from the situation, or get rid of the irritating behaviors.

**C-C:** Wouldn't be surprised. But back to Bernie. How would you describe his personality in general terms?

**T:** Oh, gregarious, extroverted, active, realistic.

**C-C:** Does he sit and stare out the window? Daydream, things like that?

**T:** Very seldom, if ever. He's too busy shooting paper wads.

**C-C:** Good. Let's look at the flow chart again.

## **Does the Student Engage in Self-Reinforcement?**

**C-C:** Some children tend to seek out opportunities to engage in self-stimulation, by doing such things as daydreaming, masturbating, and so on. The "in" terminology now is "self-stim." Were Bernie to be this type of youngster, we again might be providing reinforcement rather than nonreinforcement if we were to use timeout.

**T:** I think we're okay on that count. How do I go about this? What's the best way to signal timeout to Bernie?

**C-C:** Before we get to how you actually go about signaling timeout, let me ask one more question. Is there any chance Bernie will openly resist leaving for the timeout area?

## **Can the Student Be Removed and Kept in Timeout Area?**

**T:** Do you mean by saying, "I won't go"? Or just refusing to get out of his seat?

**C-C:** Exactly. Because if he is likely to act that way, timeout becomes a very questionable intervention strategy.

**T:** I can't completely rule that out, but I really doubt that Bernie would go that far. In looking at the flow chart, I notice it also asks whether or not he'll *stay* there. While Bernie is a spirited youngster, he is not an angry child or a child who is completely out of control. He won't be too thrilled, but I'm sure he will do as I request and remain there until I signal him to come back.

**C-C:** Okay, but Bernie's a pretty big boy for his age. If you think he might resist you physically, better forget timeout.

**T:** He's large all right, but in the past when I've sent him out or given him other directions, he's gone along. He isn't happy to do so, but he goes along.

## **Implement Timeout Program**

**C-C:** Good. We're ready, then, to discuss how you actually go about using timeout.



First of all, be sure to sit down with Bernie in advance and calmly explain to him that his present behavior isn't doing him, you, or the class any good and that from now on you will simply give him the chance to wind down when he seems to be wound up. Explain that you will ask him to leave the area for a time and sit quietly in the timeout area. Then, when and if Bernie lets go, simply remove him quietly to the timeout area.

T: Should I say anything to him?

C-C: Say as little as possible. Don't jaw at him, whatever you do. Your talking could be reinforcing, as you probably already suspect.

T: Indeed. Anything else?

C-C: Yes. Be sure to remove him *every time* the behavior occurs, and *keep the timeout period short*.

T: How short?

C-C: Generally five to fifteen minutes is about right. Be sure you don't forget about him and leave him for too long a time. If that were to happen, Bernie would probably adapt to being alone, and timeout would become ineffective. Keep in mind too that the longer he's in timeout, the more he'll miss out on your lesson or class activity.

T: Okay.

C-C: One last but very important matter. Any so-called reductive technique carries with it the possibility, if not probability, of negative emotional side effects, such as aggressive acts and attempts to escape. Also, timeout may communicate what Bernie shouldn't do, but in itself it doesn't communicate what he should do. In connection with learning not to disrupt, Bernie needs to learn alternative, constructive ways to deal with others and meet his needs. We need a program to strengthen constructive ways of living as well. The technical term is "reinforcing incompatible behavior." Since Bernie does have friends and likes school, he must act effectively at times.

T: To be sure. He does complete a cer-

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**"Unlike extinction, timeout brings about rapid results, and thus the teacher is quickly reinforced for using it. This can be both an advantage and a disadvantage."**

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tain number of assignments, and he enjoys sharing time in the morning.

C-C: Good! Try to be aware of and keep track of when Bernie is getting along, and reward him in some way. I've noticed that he really responds well to your attention. A glance, a gesture, or a friendly word works wonders for him. Attend to him when he is working whenever you can.

T: I will be sure to do that. When you and I meet again, perhaps you could help me with that aspect. For now this seems clear, and I believe it will be helpful. Thank you for your time.

C-C: Thank you for your interest in Bernie's welfare and your willingness to try various ways to help. And thanks for not giving up on me when you found that extinction didn't work for Bernie.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Unlike extinction, timeout brings about rapid results, and thus the teacher is quickly reinforced for using it. This can be both an advantage and a disadvantage. It is an advantage because the counselor does not have to reinforce the teacher frequently for continuing to use the approach (Benoit & Mayer 1974; Mayer 1972), as the counselor does in extinction. It is a disadvantage because some teachers find it so reinforcing that they begin using timeout for even minor infractions for which extinction would be a much better treatment procedure. Thus the counselor must help teachers to understand and change this phenomenon, as the counselor did in our illustration.

Timeout is a more aversive contingency than extinction. It also involves placing the student in an environment away from the classroom teacher and therefore possibly causing the student to miss out on important classroom instruction. This is not a problem with extinction. Timeout is thus a procedure that should be considered only after extinction has been determined to be unsatisfactory.

Many approaches, techniques, and materials are available for the counselor. To be effective, the counselor must use a variety of these. Timeout, like extinction, is drawn from the behavioral technology. It is but one of many available behavioral procedures that can be used to reduce undesired behavior (Sulzer & Mayer 1972). The guidelines set forth in this article have been presented as helpful for the counselor to use in determining whether timeout is appropriate for

reducing a classroom behavioral problem and, if so, how to insure its maximal effectiveness. ■

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With educational patterns changing almost daily due to the integration of applied learning theories and technical advancements, operational innovations need to be matched by the human skills required to handle them. The university without walls provides educational opportunities previously unreached by the traditional university structure (Brown 1972). To insure the success of a growing system such as this, student personnel people should take an active role in its planning and implementation.

### THE NEW STRUCTURES

The university without walls concept is not new, but it is rapidly increasing in popularity (Cross et al. 1974). Though some universities and colleges offered nonresident credit before, today the system has expanded so that students can obtain baccalaureate degrees, and some programs even offer graduate degrees in this manner.

The academic structure takes this shape within many of the open university systems: Students are not required to register for specific groups of courses but rather for a series of topics leading toward an emphasis in a particular area of interest. Students proceed at their own pace and meet periodically with a mentor, or advisor, to discuss academic progress and bring up any questions the students may have encountered during the individualized study. Learning is generally accomplished through a combination of readings, exercises, and possibly experiential situations. The advantage of this form of education is that individuals achieve personal fulfillment through learning on their own and at their own pace. To the many people looking into alternative life styles, the continuation of education seems difficult within the confines of the traditional educational system. The structure of the university without walls makes education accessible to those who do not

# student personnel services in the university without walls

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*With the growth of the university without walls, or the open university, a new and expanded role can be in the making for the student personnel professional. This professional's expanded functions should center around outreach services that are necessary for the special groups the open university can serve. An active role for the student personnel professional should become a reality within the nontraditional university.*



have the time or inclination to sit in classrooms for fifty-minute sessions five days a week or who have had years of on-the-job experience without the benefit of a degree.

This nontraditional approach to education makes the educational process much more appealing to those who have had difficulty adhering to the structure of a regimented public school curriculum and to those who have been away from a school environment for many years and would find it difficult to make the readjustment to sitting in a schoolroom, learning by rote. The university without walls can meet the academic needs of such students, but there is more to the overall learning process than academics. The role of student personnel professionals trained in the various techniques of counseling, career development, placement, financial management, and social skills development will be greatly expanded within the operating structure of the university without walls. Remedial skill-building and personal-developmental growth are just two areas in which student personnel people will be dealing with the many students who will take advantage of this new educational system.

#### **FACING THE NEEDS OF DIFFERENT STUDENTS**

The university without walls will reach members of the community sometimes forgotten by the educational system: prisoners, housewives, middle-aged persons retooling for new careers, and the disabled. Each of these four groups has specific problems that must be solved in order for the individuals to achieve success in advanced education.

Of growing interest today is prisoner education. Though the university may be behind bars, the pursuit of knowledge can be taken out of these boundaries. In addition to academic advising, prisoners greatly need the services of the student personnel professional. Human de-

velopment must be emphasized here as much as, if not more than, academic development. Many inmates have come from environments that did not encourage prosocial behavior. Never having learned to relate on a personal level could be part of the reason they are where they are now. Group and individual work with these students should be seen as a very special task of the student personnel worker if the educational philosophy of the university without walls is to be total education. As prisons are supposed to provide rehabilitation, student personnel workers' goals are doubly important here. Vast numbers of potential students and productive members of society are behind these walls, and with the help of these workers the barriers built by lack of education can be removed.

The housewife may also be classified as a special student in the university without walls; she faces problems most others do not. Student personnel workers can help her find ways to get further education while bringing up a family. She has a full-time career at home, but through this self-paced, individual contact approach student development experts can teach her to plan her time and put her ideas into perspective. Her special talents could be explored with the student personnel specialist, and with proper development she can learn to use these talents to their best advantage. She will become better educated and feel a greater degree of self-worth knowing she is improving herself (Brandenburg 1974).

During this period of increasing unemployment, many middle-aged people are beginning to reeducate themselves in order to maintain or increase their chances for gainful employment and self-development. Some are facing being phased out of a career in a few years, while others would just like to make a career switch. The university without walls can be the place for them to turn.

Student personnel staff can explore with these students the possibility of their receiving credit for life experience, and they can assist the students in the transition process of making career changes in midlife. Many of these students will need support in areas concerning their personal lives. Career development and placement services will be very important for these individuals in the transition from the work setting to the academic setting to the new career setting.

The problems of the disabled student have only recently begun to be realized by the "walled university." Campus architecture, as well as their own physical handicaps, often hampers these individuals' development. The university without walls may be the proper place for the disabled to find a complete education, if it removes the hindrances they must face elsewhere. Student personnel workers could function as intermediaries for these students in trying to help them reach their educational goals. The role of student personnel professionals could be the one that leads to a higher level of consciousness for the handicapped; through groups they could overcome their weaknesses and reinforce their strengths, and they could be put in contact with employers who offer jobs in which the abilities of the disabled outweigh their handicaps. Reinforcing the motivation that might already exist and providing services that are available nowhere else is an additional role for student personnel workers and the university without walls.

### **STUDENT PERSONNEL CONTACT**

Disadvantages are caused by the diversity of the student population and by the distances involved—between students and the campus and among students themselves; these two factors must be considered if the needs of the students are to be fully met. The composition of the system stresses diversity; diverse

courses of study, the geographic distance between the student and main center, and the variety of students all lead to the vital need for a readily available student personnel system. Placing student personnel advisors in many locations throughout the territory served by the university without walls can reduce the problems caused by the lack of "community" found in the traditional university. As the size of the university expands, the distances between students and the campus center will increase proportionately. Student-counselor contact, rather than only student-mentor contact, will become a necessity. In Great Britain's open university, study skills had been a problem area, especially for students returning to school after long absences (Shane & Shane 1973). In that system, frequent contact with counselors has proved successful in improving

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**"The advantage of this form of education is that individuals achieve personal fulfillment through learning on their own and at their own pace."**

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study skills and giving the support needed for continued motivation.

Student needs will also extend into the area of support in the development of further ideas. The possibility of impersonalization and lack of adequate stimulation can dampen motivation and morale; student personnel workers can help eliminate these feelings. Ongoing human potential groups could be maintained for this total development dimension, and rap groups could function for intellectual stimulation and insight into the field the student is pursuing. As problems arise, adequate student personnel support could provide the immediate attention required. Since students would have to make appointments



far in advance to see an academic mentor, a walk-in developmental resources center could fulfill the student's immediate needs. Student personnel workers should also have the opportunity to visit the student in his or her natural environment; here they may see ways to tie the advanced learning theories of psychology and education into the student's everyday life in order to facilitate educational progress.

#### **STUDENT PERSONNEL VS. THE MENTOR**

As an alternative educational system, the university without walls leads to a number of diverse, part-time positions. Most of the students are enrolled on a

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**"The university without walls will reach members of the community sometimes forgotten by the educational system: prisoners, housewives, middle-aged persons, and the disabled."**

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part-time basis, as are many of the faculty, who often hold other teaching positions at more structured schools. For any operation to be successful, a core of professionals must be maintained for stability and organizational efficiency. In the university without walls there is a core of academicians in central planning, and administrative functions are also centralized. But the "out front" staff—mentors, advisors, etc.—are basically part-time employees. Because of the part-time staff and its counterpart, the part-time student, learning becomes more difficult for all parties involved. In order to succeed in its goals, this system can and should be changed into a workable plan by the provision of adequate numbers of student personnel professionals who will serve to enhance the personal growth and development that

complements the academic progress made between student and mentor.

A distinction must be made between the role of a professor in the traditional university and that of a professor in the university without walls. In the traditional university, teaching is instructor-centered; in the open system it must become student-centered, because most of the students' information is not obtained directly, from a professor's lecture, but indirectly, through assigned readings and the student's own research (Sanford 1962). As a mentor, the professor will probably have time only to help students develop appropriate attitudes toward their particular area of specialization. The student personnel professional is more expertly qualified to do the personal advising and developmental exploration that students will greatly need in their pursuit of knowledge through this unstructured approach. The roles of the student personnel specialist and the academic subject specialist will become separate but equal, because each role will have its own importance in students' educational development.

#### **CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

The university without walls provides an opportunity for exploration of topics too varied to be covered adequately in a traditional classroom. Education could become relevant for the varied student population served by the nontraditional university when students work with both a student personnel professional and an academic mentor.

The function of the student personnel worker in the university without walls must become a reality if the part-time student is to be given all the advantages the full-time student often takes for granted and thus neglects. It is in the university without walls that student personnel people can accomplish the role they have been seeking as educators, not assistants. Though these student per-



sonnel functions have not been fulfilled within most nontraditional universities, the proposals set forth here would enhance the successful growth of the university and, more importantly, benefit the overall development of those working through this system. In order to insure the continuation of such educational systems, graduate training in the student personnel field must take into consideration these changing roles.

The development of these open systems of the future must include provision for the traditional academic planners who have been most successful with recent innovations. But it must also be complemented by student development experts (Brown 1972) so that a system

seeking the further advancement of intellectual growth will be equally interested in personal growth. ■

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## For Bob, in Room Seventeen

I have a friend whose room I hate to leave;  
He likes me. And he gives me room to breathe.  
He shows me windows when there are no doors.  
He smokes his peace pipe while I pace his floors  
And listens to me while I ventilate.  
He understands my loving, knows my hate.  
He does this all without a magic wand;  
He's mortal. He just knows how to respond.  
He has the power to mold me, if he would,  
To shape my soul. He doesn't. And it's good.  
He leaves the growing process up to me;  
The fears, the hope, the tears, the apathy.  
I learn a piece of me with every scene  
While acting out my life. Room seventeen.

CAROL K. WATTS  
Columbia, Missouri

# career planning inventories: "do-it-yourself" won't do

STEPHEN J. BROWN

Stephen J. Brown is Assistant Professor and counselor at LaGuardia Community College of the City University of New York in Long Island City, New York.

*This article explores the practical difficulties encountered in using self-administering, self-scoring, and self-interpreting career guidance instruments with students who have white-collar aspirations and blue-collar histories. After dramatizing and summarizing the problems, the author describes a model for successful use of one such inventory—as a text rather than a test—with career exploration groups.*

(SCENE: The Library of More Science High School. Someone has erected a sign advertising "Do-It-Yourself Vocational Guidance." Under the sign is a table with some white sheets, some big yellow booklets, another pile of big whites, and a thick volume titled *Occupational Outlook Handbook*. Together, an attractive and inviting display.

Ann Omie, a senior who has recently received a letter of admission to Careerville Community College as a liberal arts major, is intrigued; perhaps those materials will tell her what to do with her life. She moves along the table picking up copies of everything, moves to a corner carrel, and embarks on her search.)

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Some months earlier, the guidance staff of More Science High (two counselors serving 4,000 students) were thumbing idly through ERIC documents

and came across ED 064 516, *A Guide to the Self-Directed Career Program: A Practical and Inexpensive Vocational Guidance System* (Holland et al. 1972). They agreed readily with the statement that "counselors need a vocational guidance system that will multiply their time and talent so that a single counselor can cope with a large population of students and adults" (p. 2).

It had been months since the two counselors had done what they considered "counseling"; all their efforts recently had been concentrated on arranging class schedules, mailing out college recommendations, and presiding at pre-suspension hearings for miscreants. They knew they weren't doing enough for their less self-actualized clientele, but they simply did not have the time to spend hours administering and interpreting hundreds of individual test batteries. They had been following with mounting interest the development of self-administering and self-scoring

career guidance instruments and were naturally delighted to come upon a new software item—easy to use and incorporating a theory they could understand—that seemed to address their very needs. They had ordered their first five hundred copies the same day. In their haste to extend their services, they let the tool become the mechanic.

#### ACT I: "DO-IT-YOURSELF"

Ann Omie rested her pencil lightly on page 3 of the big yellow book. "Occupational Daydreams . . . Most Recent Job Choice," it said. Well, she really didn't have a recent *choice*; she had found employment when she could. She was now working nights as a cashier at the local pharmacy. Before that she had spent her free hours shelving books in the school library. Secretly, after watching and listening to her boss at the pharmacy, she wanted to become a pharmacist. So, following instructions carefully, she wrote:

##### *Occupational Daydream*

1. Cashier
2. Pharmacist
3. Library Assistant

and, using the little Occupations Finder, entered the codes CSI, IES, and CSA, respectively.

Half an hour after she had begun, Ann turned over to page 4, "Activities." Now the job was easy. Though she was fascinated by many of the activities listed under Realistic and Investigative, she had *done* hardly any of them. She was relieved to be able to check off lots of things she liked under Social and Conventional. On the "Competencies" pages, she got a little more peeved. "These Realistic and Investigative choices are just the classes I wanted to take as electives, but they only let boys in." Following instructions, she checked "no" for almost every item under Realistic, Investigative, and Enterprising (she had been

too busy working to get involved with "clubs, groups, or gangs"). Ann was glad she could enter plenty of "yesses" on the Social, Artistic, and Conventional lists.

#### ACT II: "BUT IS IT ME?"

When she turned to "Occupations" on page 8, she found most of the listings unfamiliar. It wasn't that they were *uninteresting*; she just wasn't sure whether they were interesting. Uncertain about how to proceed, she decided simply to leave out the ones she didn't know much about. On page 9, "Self-Estimates," she had to read the instructions six times, and even once out loud. Seeing herself as mostly "average," she circled number 4 for everything: Mechanical Ability, Scientific Ability, Artistic Ability, Teaching Ability, Sales Ability, Clerical Ability, Manual Ability, Math Ability, Musical Ability, Friendliness, Managerial Skills, and Office Skills.

Following the next instruction, she connected her self-ratings with lines, making just two horizontal lines straight across the page. Then she read, "If your highest ratings on a graph are the same . . . rate those traits over again so there are no ties." Sighing at the complexity of it all, she reluctantly changed to 5 her Clerical Ability and Office Skills scores. In the boxes called "Letters with Highest Ratings," she entered C, followed by RIASE and □

#### ACT III: "THANKS, BUT NO THANKS"

In her haste to complete the self-scoring pages, Ann counted and added incorrectly, filled in the graphs incorrectly, and broke her pencil point in the middle of the "How Many Times?" table. Nevertheless, she came up with results for the boxes called "Summary Code":

|         |     |     |
|---------|-----|-----|
| C       | S   | A   |
| Highest | 2nd | 3rd |



**"Community college students have evidenced reactions of anger, frustration, and occasional resignation in the face of their 'high' aspirations being contradicted by 'low' measured profiles."**

Her paperwork completed, Ann felt a twinge of excitement. This was it! "Use the Occupations Finder, and locate the occupations whose codes are identical with yours." She flipped through the little yellow booklet and found "CSA: Secretary, Medical Secretary, Library Assistant, Religious Affairs Clerk." A surge of anger welled up in Ann's breast: "All this work to be told I'm a library assistant! Some vocational guidance!" Fuming, she piled her white and yellow papers and ripped them twice in half, dropped them on the long table, and rushed off to home economics.

Had Ann been able to hold her temper, she might have taken the precautions listed on the last white paper, entitled "Making the SDS Work for You." But then, she had no one handy to check her addition and computation (as the checklist suggests). Nor would it have helped to "search the Occupations Finder for ALL combinations of your Summary Code," since there exists only one of the permutations—not CAS or SCA or ACS or ASC, but only SAC: "Cosmetologist, electrologist, hair stylist, manicurist." It may be just as well that Ann didn't follow the checklist; since her Summary Code and Most Recent Daydream Code were identical, she would have found no suggestion that she seek counselor assistance. That service is reserved for those whose two codes are almost completely dissimilar, as Ann's might have been had she listed (cor-

rectly) Pharmacist—ISE as her most recent choice.

### SELF-DIRECTION OR MISDIRECTION?

The above scenario is only partly fiction. It dramatizes a composite of the experiences of scores of users of self-directed vocational counseling inventories at LaGuardia Community College. Instruments such as the Self-Directed Search, created with the best intentions by experienced practitioners and researchers, are subject to misuse, especially by other well-intentioned practitioners. Overworked counselors, looking for "instant" and "painless" relief, may exclude themselves entirely from the career counseling process. The result is often misdirection rather than self-direction, and dissatisfied users are the least likely to seek professional advice.

Holland's Self-Directed Search is probably the best of the self-administering and scoring instruments now available. But for all of its good features, it still shares several weaknesses with other inventories of its type.

First, it is too complicated. Nearly all of its self-directed users at LaGuardia, an urban community college, made at least one major error, either mathematical or conceptual. One published report (Gelso et al. 1973) found that when 221 college freshmen<sup>1</sup> self-directed themselves through the Search, 89 percent made errors in the summary table, 55 percent made errors affecting the final code, 47 percent made errors causing the omission of one or more letters from the final code, and four students discontinued when they reached the summary table.

<sup>1</sup>Note from the Journal staff: Freshmen, of course, are not all men. In our effort to eliminate sexist terminology from P&G, there are some inherently masculine words (such as *freshman* and *manpower*) for which we can find no female equivalent or neutral substitute; and we can't bring ourselves to coin such words as *freshwoman* or *personpower*. Readers are asked to bear with us—until the English language catches up to P&G policy—and understand that *freshmen* refers to all first-year college students and that *manpower* includes women and men in the work force.

In that study two undergraduate research assistants employed to check the accuracy of student's self-scoring made their own rescore errors in 20 percent of the booklets.

Second, it is too smug. Holland has included no cautions about the absence of any clear predictive validity data; he has provided no caveats such as "the counselor should be able to explain the profile in detail to the person involved" or "there is no magic here" (Campbell 1974). On the contrary, the emphasis in the Search itself, as in the *Counselor's Guide* (Holland 1971) and the *Professional Manual* (Holland 1972) is on the instrument's self-administering, self-scoring, and self-interpreting features. It seems unreasonable to expect all the incongruent or dissatisfied users to seek the aid of a counselor voluntarily. First, counselors are relatively uninvolved in the Self-Directed Career Program. Second, users are so likely to make errors that they might erroneously assess themselves as congruent or satisfied. Finally, using "incongruence" or nonexistence of Summary Code or simple dissatisfaction as criteria for counselor intervention suggests a return to a medical model of counseling service: Only the sick and deviant are served.

Third, it is too experience-based. The Self-Directed Search, when taken and scored correctly, does a good job of reflecting the user's history. In populations with "high" occupational aspirations and "low" occupational and educational histories, there is a clear tendency to produce high Conventional, Social, and Realistic scores and low Investigative and Artistic scores. Much user dissatisfaction among community college freshmen results when they obtain high Realistic and Conventional codes and find that the occupations listed are generally antithetical to college attendance. To assign negative weight to items because a respondent has "never done" them may be empirically and statistically

accurate, but such weighting effectively cancels emerging new interest areas or higher occupational aspirations, and it fails to account for the channeling effects of educational and social systems that are loaded with sex bias and early academic tracking. In contrast, other instruments do not distinguish absolutely between pursued interests and latent interests. Parts II, III, and IV of the newly revised Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, a form that incorporates Holland's theory and typology, instruct the respondent to indicate interest in areas even though he or she may not have studied or experienced them (Campbell 1974).

In short, the Self-Directed Search unduly emphasizes what the respondent has done and has been; it virtually ignores, in its assessment sections, areas in which the user is just beginning to develop.

Predictably, then, blue-collar, first-generation community college students have evidenced reactions of anger, frustration, and occasional resignation in the face of their "high" aspirations being contradicted by "low" measured profiles. Seldom have such students come to counselors (as the assessment booklet suggests they should) to express their discontent. Rather, they extend their dissatisfaction to include all testing, all counseling, and the education establishment in general.

#### A WAY OUT OF THE DILEMMA

In the Self-Directed Search, as in other self-administering instruments, we have a device that is fun for its user, that has a sound and easily understood theoretical

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**"Perhaps the best way out of the dilemma is to take advantage of the self-administering feature while modifying the process of self-interpretation."**

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base, that promises to be helpful and informative, and that saves time and money for practitioners and users. On the other hand, it suffers from requiring extreme care in self-administration, implying its own infallibility and overlooking newly emerging areas of career interest.

Perhaps the best way out of the dilemma is to take advantage of the self-administering feature while modifying the process of self-interpretation. In fact, with a minor change in perspective, the Search may become more a text than an individual assessment instrument—a text on making vocational choices and disseminating occupational information. At LaGuardia Community College, which has a cooperative education program for all students, a mini-course in career decision-making has been developed using Holland typology and the Self-Directed Search as a conceptual framework for exploring the world of work.

Fifteen students, grouped homogeneously by curricular major, meet for three one-hour sessions with a counselor. At the first meeting the group views a sound filmstrip, "Choosing Your Career" (available from Guidance Associates, Pleasantville, N.Y.), which explores school subjects, extracurricular interests, and occupations, all in the context of their Holland types. Group discussion reinforces learning of the types by listing college majors and group-generated occupations in their appropriate categories.

At session two the Self-Directed Search is distributed for self-administration and scoring, with a counselor-supervised group checking process to insure accuracy. The commonality of curricular major leads to great similarity among recent Daydream codes, while the heterogeneity of the school population usually results in a wide range of Summary Codes. For example, a group of data processing majors typically

shares a Daydream Code of IRC: Computer Programmer. Different subgroups may evidence high Social or Conventional Summary Codes, based on their precollege life experiences. An *individual's* lack of congruence (between Daydream and Summary Codes) is often overshadowed by the *group's* lack of congruence. Students are assigned to small subgroups based on commonality of Summary Code and are given two tasks: to account for their subgroup's highest score and to propose a plan that will resolve their lack of congruence with their Daydream Code.

Most groups handle the first task easily. By reviewing each other's tests, they identify the sources of high scores and discover common threads of activities, competencies, and self-estimates. In seeking a plan to resolve their shared incongruence, they readily agree that they must alter either their Daydream Code (make a new occupational choice) or their Summary Code ("get more 'I'").

Session three is held in a library that houses career information, classified in part using Holland types. Guided individual and small group research is encouraged to allow exploration of occupations in both the college major type (IRC) and the Summary Code types. The stated goal is to gather information that will resolve a lack of congruence; the achieved goal is occupational information-seeking appropriate to both expressed (Daydream) and inventoried (Summary) interests.

## TESTING IS NOT COUNSELING

The Self-Directed Search thus proves a most useful instructional tool in career counseling, as long as it is not self-directed, not used primarily for diagnosis or assessment, not used without active counselor involvement, and not seen as infallible. As stimuli for discussion, as devices to promote a conceptual framework of the world of work, and as



resources with which to disagree, self-administering and self-scoring instruments may acquit themselves honorably.

Guidance practitioners must monitor carefully their eagerness to extend counseling services without burdening themselves with new work. Self-administered and self-interpreted measurement instruments can help to supply valuable information—but only counselors can provide counseling. ■

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## Invited Comment:

## DILEMMAS AND REMEDIES

JOHN L. HOLLAND, Professor of Social Relations, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland

I read Brown's piece with curiosity, pain, fear, and finally relief and pride (I thought he would never get around to fixing the shortcomings of the SDS). I am pleased that he has found still another way to use the SDS, and I have only praise for the sensitive way he has improved its use. I also toyed with not responding to his partial critique, since he found a useful solution himself. At the same time, his evaluative effort and his beliefs about counseling form such a large, soft target and echo so many ideas I disagree with that I could not resist writing a response—and to hell with my last Dale Carnegie course.

### WHO SAID WHAT?

Brown and I have an area of agreement: The SDS does not always work; a counselor is sometimes required. The *SDS Professional Manual* says in several places and at some length that the SDS will fail to help some people so that a counselor will be needed (page 3), that the SDS is not a cure for social alienation (page 5), that people make errors and should be supervised (page 5), that "counselors should be prepared to engage in traditional vocational counseling" (page 11), that the SDS will not work for everyone (page 11), and that the correct response

in the Self-Test to the item "The SDS always works with any person" is "false." Finally, the current SDS assessment booklet contains a special warning about social class as well as other influences—age, sex, and religion (page 14).

### NIT-PICKING

Brown's fictionalized evaluation epitomizes the anti-research bias of this journal and one of the undesirable outcomes of such a policy. Except for a few factual matters, there is no way to resolve differences of opinion because there is no tangible information to reassess. I could present a fictional account of a student who just loved the SDS experience. Then what do we do? Write a conciliatory poem?

The evaluative study includes some material that requires more interpretation. The Gelso and others (1973) error study used an unpublished edition of the SDS. Subsequent published editions were revised to reduce scoring errors.

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**"Brown and I have an area of agreement: The SDS does not always work; a counselor is sometimes required."**

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The SDS is not a "test" but a simulation of the vocational counseling experience. Consequently, the effects of the SDS should be compared with the effects of counselors. Unfortunately, we don't know whether or not the SDS error or disappointment rate exceeds that of the average counselor.

I was surprised that Ms. Omie got anything out of the SDS. That she did is a tribute to Brown's skill, not the SDS. She is the very person who should get extensive counseling. Her difficulties suggest that she is an extremely poor reader; she spent 30 minutes on the Daydream sec-

tion, read the directions in the Self-Estimates section six times, and finally sighed "at the complexity of it all" (7th to 8th grade reading level). Her apparent impulsiveness and her inability to concentrate imply that she needs the kind of assistance that only counselors and other people can provide. A counselor who had read our recent diagnostic study would have quickly identified her as a special person (Holland, Gottfredson & Nafziger 1973).

### THE STATUS QUO DILEMMA

So far no one has been able to create a non-experience-based guidance device. My assistant tried, but his effort does not appear useful. It begins: "Write down all the occupations you have never considered. Be careful to list those occupations which demand talents you lack, activities you have avoided, and competencies you have failed to acquire. In short, ignore who you really are."

It seems more useful to promote exploratory activities before and after assessments than to construct assessments that tell all people precisely what they would like to hear. I have elaborated my ideas about the constructive use of inventories and the liberation of men and women in some detail elsewhere (Holland 1974).

### OTHER REMEDIES

Despite my reservations about the quality of Brown's evaluative study, I agree that the SDS needs improvement. Unfortunately, it is difficult to be sure about a particular revision because the publisher and I receive much conflicting advice and because there is no instructional technology for making revisions that always work. We have, however, done the following things:

- The Self-Directed Career Program was developed to make the SDS more self-directed and error free.

• A special edition of the SDS, Form Easy (Form E), was developed with all directions in fourth grade language. In addition, all scales were shortened by eliminating the poorest items. Further, all computational activities were simplified, so much so that 100 percent of a small sample of "real" fourth and fifth graders completed Form E without supervision. Ms. Omie, with some help, should be able to get through Form E.

• Because I know that neither of these first two solutions always works, I am now developing the Paper Guidance System, a more comprehensive self-study and experience program for people whose vocational problems require more extensive assistance. I don't expect this development always to work either, but I think the PGS will increase the number of people who can be helped with printed materials.

## COUNSELORS AND PAPER SERVICES

Brown wants to reserve counseling for counselors, especially the diagnostic or assessment function. I would agree—if there were enough counselors to go around, if their diagnostic skills were less fallible, if their services were more effec-

tive, and if the only good way to make vocational decisions were through the direct services of a counselor. Because the evidence does not support these assumptions, I favor the use of self-directed assistance whenever possible and the use of whatever techniques or materials (even computers) will further a person's vocational aims. I believe we can meet the need if counselors will become managers, evaluators, and developers of services (as Brown has been) and if they will reduce their attempts to provide direct service. ■

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## **The Bandaïd Man**

At times

I envy the Bandaïd Man  
Who cleaned my cuts  
when I was young  
While painting me as "mercurochrome clown"  
before he patched my pain  
with adhesive.

That was security  
to know he cared  
and would be around  
To fix when possible  
all the hurts of childhood  
that come in growing to be man.

His job I think  
was easier than mine  
For in counseling  
I cannot always see clearly  
Your past wounds,  
scars,  
and might-have-beens.

If I could  
on days like today  
I might  
like the old man I remember  
try with gentleness to cover them,  
For you sit beside me in tears  
and I know how slowly  
it takes words to heal.

**SAMUEL T. GLADDING**  
Rockingham County Mental Health Center, Wentworth, North Carolina

# *In the Field*

*Reports of programs, practices, or techniques*

## Systems Orientation to a Systems College

JAMES O. HAMMONS

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In the last five years, the philosophical "open door" of the community college has been put to the test as thousands of so-called new students, or nontraditional students, have walked in. Colleges enrolling substantial numbers of these students quickly discovered that traditional methods of instruction that worked well with traditional students simply did not work with this new student population. A workable alternative that is being used in an ever-increasing number of community colleges is a technique known as the systems approach to individualized instruction. This approach stresses the use of specific, measurable learning objectives as a guide to student learning and as the basis for student evaluation.

When Burlington County College, a public community college located outside Philadelphia, opened its doors in 1969, it was committed to using a systems

approach. Due to the fundamental differences between this approach and that used by the sending high schools in the area, a major problem was orienting students to the systems approach. This article summarizes Burlington's early failures in attempting to develop a viable student orientation program, outlines the planning strategy that eventually led to success, describes the program that resulted, and presents descriptive data regarding the results. Hopefully, other colleges using a systems approach to instruction will find the Burlington experience useful.

### **BACKGROUND OF THE ORIENTATION PROGRAM**

First-year responsibility for that part of the student orientation pertaining to the instructional program was assigned to a committee of charter faculty members.

Unfortunately, under the pressure of getting the college started, the committee was forced to delegate its assignment to a low priority, and the resultant program reflected this. During the second year the student personnel staff assumed responsibility for the entire orientation program. Their efforts produced an adequate traditional student orientation program that essentially ignored academic matters. In the mistaken belief that experienced students were best qualified to orient new incoming students, and because the student government had requested to be given the task, responsibility for the third-year orientation program was delegated to students. This orientation included a session about the college's unique instructional program. As several staff members, including the dean of the college, viewed the program, they were appalled at the generally poor quality of the program and the many misconceptions being communicated in the student sessions about both the college and the instructional approach.

Consequently, after discussions between the dean of students and the dean of the college, a committee was appointed that consisted of the dean of the college, the director of student activities, and three of the several faculty members who had witnessed the student-conducted program.

### PLANNING STRATEGY

The task of this committee was to start from scratch and develop a means of orienting new students to both the college and the unique instructional approach being used by the college. At some since-forgotten point in the early meetings of this group, it occurred to the members to use a systematic approach to planning a student orientation program similar to that which characterizes a systems approach to instruction.

The systematic approach used by this

fourth-year committee was essentially that of (a) determining the goals and objectives of the student orientation program, (b) deciding on an appropriate instructional format, (c) developing materials, (d) designing an evaluation plan that would indicate areas in need of revision, and (e) developing a scheme for incorporating the revisions of the pilot program into the design for subsequent orientation programs. The group's only restriction was time. Because of time constraints necessitated by the unique calendar used at the college, the entire orientation program would have to be conducted in approximately half a day!

### DETERMINING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

The committee approached its first task, that of determining goals and objectives of the orientation program, through the logical but unorthodox procedure of asking the students what they thought. For several days early in the planning stage, it was not uncommon to see the committee members, including the dean of the college, interviewing students in hallways, student lounges, and the snack bar. In every case the questions were the same: "We're planning an orientation program for new students; what do you think we should tell them?" "What were some of the things that were new or different to you when you first enrolled?" As expected, the questions produced a variety of answers, ranging from "The students here are older" and "You don't have to have a hall pass" to more substantive comments such as "Tell them it's different." "Tell them about learning objectives." "Explain the grading system—it's fantastic."

Guided by these data and the committee members' own experience, the committee developed a list of topics to be included. These topics were then grouped into one of two classifications: orientation to the college itself or orien-



tation to the unique differences between being a student in a conventional high school and being a student in a two-year college using a systems approach to instruction. Topics included in the first category were those common to orientation programs of other community colleges in the state: (a) the multiple functions of community colleges, (b) the rapid growth and acceptance of community colleges in New Jersey and in the nation, (c) basic socioeconomic data about students attending Burlington, (d) general information about the staff, (e) the history and future plans of the college, and (f) differences between high school and college.

However, it is representative items contained in the second category on which the remainder of this article focuses. Topics selected for this part of the program included:

- The reason the college had elected to use a systems approach to individualized instruction
- Differences between individualized and conventional instruction
- The different roles of the students and faculty members in an institution using a systematic approach to instruction
- The grading system developed to accompany the instructional approach
- The variety of teaching strategies used in implementing the approach
- The importance of instructional objectives
- The purpose of the course syllabus and unit learning outlines

True to Parkinson's law that a committee of five is the optimum size for reaching any agreement, the committee quickly agreed on the topics to be included in the orientation and pro-

ceeded to write specific, measurable instructional objectives for each concept, or goal statement. For example, from the general topic "differences between individualized and conventional instruction," a specific objective generated was: "Be able to state at least three differences between individualized and conventional instruction."

## SELECTING FORMAT

Since there seemed to be sound pedagogical reasons for doing so—and in order to make the orientation as much as possible like attending classes at Burlington—the committee decided to think of the orientation program in terms of a fictitious course, dubbed "Student Orientation 101."

The course was structured to include five sessions. The first session was 15 minutes long; it was a large group session that introduced the topic by means of a narrated slide presentation on the community college. It was hoped that this initial session would motivate students. The second session, lasting 30 minutes, involved an independent study assignment designed to acquaint students with the use of programmed audiovisual materials. For this purpose there was a slide-tape presentation on the systems approach. The third session consisted of small group meetings and was 45 minutes long. In these meetings students had the opportunity to interact and to explore in detail topics and questions generated from the previous activities. Here also they discussed various testing and learning packets. The fourth session was an evaluation session lasting from 20 to 30 minutes. The purposes of this session were to determine the extent to which students had mastered the objectives of the program, to provide a forum for their opinions of the program, and to familiarize them with the operations of the college's testing center. These purposes were accomplished through the

use of a mastery test and an evaluation questionnaire. The last session was a social hour. It lasted 45 minutes and provided the opportunity for students, faculty members, and administrators to become better acquainted. Light refreshments were served during this time.

## DEVELOPING MATERIALS

The concepts determined, the objectives written, and the instructional strategies fixed, the major remaining tasks were those of developing the materials, outlining activities for the small group meetings, programming the independent study material, generating test items geared to stated learning objectives for the mastery test, and developing an instrument for student evaluation of the program.

Every effort was made to insure that the materials prepared were representative of those developed for use in the college. A major distinguishing characteristic of the instructional approach at Burlington is the distribution of a course syllabus and of detailed unit outlines, called learning packets, to students. Since these are routinely given to students for each course and every unit of each course, it seemed only logical to develop for "Student Orientation 101" a syllabus and a learning packet that followed the same format used by instructors in the college.

To illustrate the syllabuses used throughout the college, the syllabus for this course included sections containing descriptive information about the orientation program, goals of the program, methods used in teaching the program, learning resources associated with the program, attendance requirements, and evaluation procedures. The learning packet developed to go with the course syllabus was also designed to be an example of the packets students would receive in their classes; this packet included a listing of topics to be covered in

the program, a rationale for the program, a pretest and a posttest, specific learning objectives for the orientation, and a description of the learning activities and resources developed for use in achieving the objectives of the program.

In view of new students' very limited or nonexistent knowledge about college, jargon was kept to a minimum. Scripts and other materials were written in a casual, conversational tone and were personalized as much as possible. Here is an example from one script: "This course will meet only once—today. We will be your instructors, and this will be your first and only class meeting. Let's assume the roll has been taken and the class is beginning. Normally, during the first meeting, your instructor will provide you with a course syllabus and will discuss this with you. In many ways the syllabus is a contract between you and your instructor. In effect, it tells you what your instructor will do and what you must do to earn an A, B, C. . ."

Following the large group meeting, students were divided into small groups and directed to rooms for their meetings. Volunteer faculty members served as discussion leaders for these groups. To facilitate these meetings, an outline of suggested activities for each small group had been previously developed and reviewed with each faculty discussion leader. After viewing a slide-tape presentation on the systems approach, students received a learning packet for a fictitious unit of "Student Orientation 101," and the group leader gave a part-by-part description of each segment of the packet. Also, the Burlington grading system was discussed. It was explained that Burlington uses criterion-referenced testing (i.e., "you are told specifically in the objective how you must perform for any grade earned") rather than norm-referenced testing ("we have no preconceived notion about how many of you can receive A's—there is no competing against others for a grade").

Also given special emphasis in each small group were the differences in the roles of the instructor and the student at Burlington as compared to those at conventional high schools and other colleges. Each small group was then taken to the college testing center, where the students were asked to take a test covering the content of the orientation and to complete a questionnaire regarding their impressions of the orientation program.

## OUTCOMES

It seems to be indicated by several factors that the basic format of this pilot program was successful and should be retained as the basis for future orientation programs.

*Student Achievement on the Mastery Test.* All students eventually passed the post-test. Only 13 percent passed on the first try, the majority passing on the second effort, after rereading the scripts of each presentation. All had passed by the third try.

*Student Evaluation of the Program.* Student responses on the questionnaire were quite positive, no one indicating that the program had been "Mickey Mouse." Their responses reflected that they had a more positive attitude toward Burlington, that they understood the purpose of the course syllabus and the learning packet, and that they had some idea about their role and that of faculty members at the college.

*Faculty Opinions.* Numerous faculty members went out of their way to comment on the noticeable positive influence the revised program had on their students.

*Other Indications.* In the year following the implementation of the revised orientation program, Burlington experienced the remarkably low attrition rate of 7.6 percent among its freshman students; the figure had been 20 to 25 percent the two previous years. When word of this

spread, one of the first groups to visit the college was the staff of the Division of Two-Year Colleges for the State of New Jersey. Although they could isolate no one single causative factor, they attributed a great deal of the success to the initial direction given new students by the student orientation program. It was their opinion that the program had done an outstanding job in changing many students' false prejudgments about two-year colleges and in preparing students for their unique experiences at Burlington. If one measure of successful student adaptation to and acceptance of a new environment is the students' tendency to remain in it, the program was definitely successful. Further, there do not seem to have been any other changes during this period that might have caused the decrease in attrition rate.

## CONCLUSION

The basic program has remained intact since its original use in January 1972. In the fall of 1973 two 15-minute videotape recordings were added, one an introduction of the president and his administrative staff and the other an introduction of the student development staff and their functions. In addition, a self-guided tour of the college building was included. The program was made a requirement for all full-time students, and an optional program was designed for part-time students.

It might be inferred that Burlington has found "the" answer to orienting students to the community college and the systems approach. This is not the case. The program that has evolved at Burlington works for Burlington. While other colleges might benefit from Burlington's experiences and materials, the primary contribution of the Burlington experience is, hopefully, in its demonstrating the efficiency of using a systems approach to developing a student orientation model. ■



# Alternate Sources of Information about the U.S. Military: A Bibliography

ALICE SCHAEFFER

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Each year many thousands of persons desert the United States Armed Forces. Even more thousands go AWOL: During fiscal year 1971, 17 percent of the men in the U.S. Army were listed as being absent without official leave at least once during the year (Ayres 1971). These men eventually fill the armed forces' 130 military prisons, where 80 to 90 percent of the prisoners (whose average age is 19) are confined for committing the offense of going AWOL (Barnes 1971).

What is most disturbing about these figures is that, contrary to the popular image of the AWOL soldier as an unwilling draftee, the majority of military personnel going AWOL are volunteers (Barnes 1971). The fact that these soldiers risk imprisonment to escape an obligation for which they had previously volunteered indicates that life in the military was not quite what they had expected.

Unfortunately, it is common for men and women to volunteer for the armed forces with only vague conceptions—or misconceptions—of what military life is like. One major reason for this is that usually the only available source of information about enlistment and about military life is the local armed forces recruiting station, and military recruiters understandably present a rather favorable account of military life to the potential volunteer. Thus a need exists for

someplace to which an interested young person can turn for alternate, non-military-establishment sources of information about the U.S. Armed Forces.

Counselors in schools, colleges, and agencies can help fill this need, first by being aware that such alternate sources of information do exist, and then by actively encouraging the appropriate library to seek out these alternate sources of information and to acquire materials offering different points of view. By providing this career information to its young adult users, the library can give them access to *all* the information they need in order to make well-informed decisions about whether to enlist in the armed forces. And by taking an active part in seeing that this information is provided, counselors can ensure that the young people they counsel know exactly what they are doing if and when they do enlist.

There exists a wide variety of alternate sources of information about the U.S. military. The following bibliography includes literature from organizations, books, articles, and newspapers, all of which may be consulted directly by young people themselves. Also included is a separate list of materials that may be consulted more effectively by adults who work with young people.

The items in this bibliography have been chosen not necessarily to dissuade

young people from entering the armed forces (military service may be the best career open to some young people) but rather to provide young adults with information that will allow them to make informed, carefully determined decisions about whether to enlist. Until such information is easily available, the stockades and brigades of the United States Armed Forces will be filled with young people who discovered too late that military life was not what they had expected it to be. For, unlike a civilian who is dissatisfied with a job, a soldier does not have the option of changing his or her mind and looking for something better. A soldier can't quit.

### LITERATURE FROM ORGANIZATIONS

American Friends Service Committee  
319 East 25th Street  
Baltimore, Maryland 21218

AFSC—Baltimore has prepared several informative, clearly written pamphlets specifically intended to ensure that young people are aware of *all* the ramifications of enlistment. Also available are reprints of pertinent articles, a "recruitment game" poster, and some literature in Spanish. Literature list available on request.

CCCO  
2016 Walnut Street  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19103

"An Agency for Military and Draft Counseling," CCCO publishes and otherwise makes available pamphlets, article reprints, and books on a variety of topics, including military counseling, Junior ROTC, and counterrecruitment. Philadelphia is the location of the national office; other offices are located in Atlanta, Chicago, Denver, and San Francisco. Regional offices can be consulted for the nearest local source of military and draft counseling. General literature list available on request.

Fellowship of Reconciliation  
Box 271  
Nyack, New York 10960

FOR makes available a wide selection of literature on topics such as the draft, the military, Junior ROTC, and nonviolence. Literature list available on request.

National GI Project  
VVAW/WSO National Office  
827 West Newport Avenue  
Chicago, Illinois 60657

The National GI Project makes available various informative publications concerning military life and GI's. Literature list available on request.

War Resisters League  
339 Lafayette Street  
New York, New York 10012

WRL provides a wide variety of literature on peace issues, including a packet on counterrecruiting campaigns. Literature list available on request.

Community for Nonviolent Action  
RFD 1, Box 430  
Voluntown, Connecticut 06384

This organization publishes a pamphlet entitled "Recruiting: Myth and Fact," which is also available in Spanish.

Legal In-Service Project  
355 Boylston Street  
Boston, Massachusetts 02116

A useful pamphlet available from this organization is "Nine Things to Remember When You Visit the Recruiter!"

Midwest CCCO  
407 South Dearborn Street  
Chicago, Illinois 60605

The Midwest CCCO puts out two helpful pamphlets: "If It's a Job, Why Can't You Quit?" and "Quitting Your Job Is Not a Crime" (whereas going AWOL is).

## BOOKS AND ARTICLES

Barnes, P. *Pawns: The Plight of the Citizen-Soldier*. New York: Warner Books, 1971.

The single most accessible and complete source of information about the pitfalls of enlisting in the U.S. Armed Forces. Includes chapters on "Your Friendly Neighborhood Recruiter," "Remaking the Civilian," "The Loss of Rights," and "The Military Prisons" and an excellent bibliography of pertinent books, articles, and government documents.

Cortright, D. B. "The Military Recruitment Racket." Article in *The Progressive*, 1973, 37(9), 40-43.

An excellent, concise exposé of deceptive recruitment practices.

Crowell, J. *Fort Dix Stockade: Our Prison Camp Next Door*. New York: Links Books, 1974.

Inside an army prison.

Gardner, F. *The Unlawful Concert: An Account of the Presidio Mutiny Case*. New York: Viking Press, 1970.

The story of 27 soldiers who were charged with mutiny for protesting the shotgun death of a fellow soldier by a stockade guard.

Loory, S. H. *Defeated: Inside America's Military Machine*. New York: Random House, 1973.

In-depth study of problems in the armed forces.

*The New York Times* (selected articles).

"G.I. Deaths Raise Boot Camp Issue." Sunday, January 23, 1972, Section 1, p. 20. "U.S. Defense Department reports an average of 30 inductees die each year during basic training. . . . Training

officers for each service say deaths are unavoidable" (summary from *The New York Times Index*, 1972).

"U.S. Sailors in Japan Jump Ship over Alleged Bias and Severity." Sunday, June 16, 1974, Section 1, p. 2. Sailors protesting "alleged racial discrimination and harsh discipline."

Prasad, D. *They Love It but Leave It: American Deserters*. London: War Resisters International, 1971. Available from CCCO or WRL.

Notes various reasons for GI desertion, such as drugs, racism, theft, and violence.

Rivkin, R. S. *GI Rights and Army Justice: The Draftee's Guide to Military Life and Law*. New York: Grove Press, 1970.

Discusses basic and advanced training, the "military mind," military justice, a soldier's rights and how to obtain them. A key book.

Sherrill, R. *Military Justice Is to Justice as Military Music Is to Music*. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.

A readable account of several examples of military "justice," with a chapter on military prison brutality.

Walton, G. *The Tarnished Shield*. New York: Dodd, Mead, 1973.

Includes sections on racism and drug abuse in the armed forces.

## BOOKS ESPECIALLY FOR THOSE WHO DO DECIDE TO ENLIST

The Bay Area Turning the Regs Around Committee. *Turning the Regs Around: A Handbook on Military Law and Counseling*. San Francisco, 1973. Available from the National GI Project.

"Intended mainly to help enlisted people understand military law," this book includes a good list of people and



organizations nationwide that can be of help in the event of "problems with the military."

Rivkin, R. S. *The Rights of Servicemen: The Basic ACLU Guide to Servicemen's Rights*. New York: Avon Books, 1972.

Chapters on military law, the right to privacy, freedom of expression, and AWOL and desertion.

## NEWSPAPERS AND NEWSLETTERS

One of the best ways to get an insider's view of military life is to subscribe to a newspaper published by active-duty GI's. These newspapers contain many firsthand accounts of various situations and problems encountered by enlisted persons, male and female.

*Highway 13*  
319 East 25th Street  
Baltimore, Maryland 21218

*Grapes of Wrath*  
The Defense Committee  
P.O. Box 9870  
Norfolk, Virginia 23505

*Bragg Briefs*  
Box 437  
Spring Lake, North Carolina 28390

*Rage*  
P.O. Box 301  
Jacksonville, North Carolina 28542

*Death Ship Times*  
P.O. Box 4643  
Charleston, South Carolina 29405

*Wildcat*  
P.O. Box 1381  
Evanston, Illinois 60204

*Helping Hand*  
P.O. Box 729  
Mountain Home, Idaho 83647

*Long Beach MDM/Drydock*  
701 West Broadway  
Long Beach, California 90812

*Up from the Bottom*  
820 Fifth Street  
San Diego, California 92101

*Up Against the Bulkhead*  
9 Prospect  
San Francisco, California 94110

*Fed-Up*  
P.O. Box 9098  
Tacoma, Washington 98409

The following publications, while not produced by active-duty GI's, contain much information about and relate many examples of common GI problems.

*GI News*  
National GI Project  
VVAW/WSO National Office  
827 West Newport Avenue  
Chicago, Illinois 60657

Includes reports of the general situations at various military bases as well as accounts of specific conflicts between GI's and the military.

*Recon*  
P.O. Box 14602  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19134

An informative monthly newsletter about the military. A special issue available separately, "Women: The Recruiter's Last Resort," contains several articles written by women currently in the armed forces and should be read by every woman considering enlistment.

## FILM

"Basic Training." Directed by Frederick Wiseman, 1971. Available from Ziporah Films Inc., 54 Lewis Wharf, Boston, Massachusetts 02110.

A film with a perspective so balanced that it has been accepted as accurate by the army and anti-militarists alike.

#### FOR ADULTS WHO WORK WITH YOUNG ADULTS

These items can be useful to adults who are interested in recruitment awareness as well as to adults who must counsel young people about whether to enlist in the armed forces.

Bachman, S. "How Much of a Contract Is the Enlistment 'Contract'?" Pamphlet available from the Committee on Military Justice, Room W-139A, Langdell Hall, Harvard Law School, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138.

A thorough, in-depth discussion of the nature of the enlistment "contract," from a legal point of view.

Binkin, M., and Johnston, J. D. *All-Volunteer Armed Forces: Progress, Problems, and Prospects*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973. Available from AFSC—Baltimore.

Basic source material, including many statistics, detailing problems in and implications of recruiting for an all-volunteer armed forces.

*Counter Pentagon*. A newsletter on counterrecruitment, edited by Stephen Gulick and published five times a year by CCCO—Philadelphia.

A most important source for all types of up-to-date counterrecruitment information. Includes as a regular feature "Resources," a list of sources of information and counterrecruiting materials, both printed and audiovisual.

Finn, J. (Ed.) *Conscience and Command: Justice and Discipline in the Military*. New York: Random House, 1971.

Sophisticated discussions of the effects

of various military policies, in chapters such as "The Army and the First Amendment" and "The Military and the Individual" (about basic training's psychological effects on recruits).

Klare, M. T. "Can the Army Survive VOLAR? People Problems in an All-Volunteer Force." Article in *Commonweal*, 1974, 99, 384-389.

Problems discussed include the lowering of standards to meet enlistment quotas and the possibility of an army composed disproportionately of members of minorities.

McAuliffe, K. "The Small Print of Enlistment." Article in *The Nation*, 1974, 218, 558-561.

Excellent, compact report on the deceptive nature of the enlistment "contract."

Marmion, H. A. *The Case against a Volunteer Army*. Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1971.

Includes a chapter on "A Class Army," which explains how "the poor and the disadvantaged can simply be shunted off into the military."

"The Military: What to Tell Your Children." Pamphlet available from AFSC—Baltimore.

To help adults counsel young people about whether to enlist in the armed forces.

"NBC News Special." November 11, 1973. Transcript available from Joseph Bernstein, Room 1216, NBC Studios, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, New York 10020.

A report on some problems of recruiting for the U.S. Army. Also discusses dishonest practices resorted to by some recruiters to fulfill their enlistment quotas.

Reeves, T., and Hess, K. *The End of the Draft*. New York: Random House, 1970.

"A proposal for abolishing conscription and for a volunteer army, for popular resistance to militarism and the restoration of individual freedom." ■

## REFERENCES

Ayres, B. D., Jr. Army is shaken by crisis in morale and discipline. *New York Times*, September 5, 1971, Section 1, pp. 1; 36.

Barnes, P. *Pawns: The plight of the citizen-soldier*. New York: Warner Books, 1971.

# Recipe for an Interesting Career Presentation

CLIFFORD G. DOLL

Clifford G. Doll is Job Placement Coordinator with the Governor's Career Development Program in the Bayonne (New Jersey) Public Schools.

"Please put the lights on, Mike, and tell Brian to wake up. The movie is over."

Another "good" previewed presentation that failed to interest the class. "There must be a better way," I thought. As a classroom teacher, I pondered this problem many times and experimented with alternatives, with little success.

As a career counselor responsible for planning many group presentations, I had to devise programs that would interest students and still be informative. Although there are many good published materials, I found them too general or not appealing enough. The information about career opportunities in particular is concerned with a large regional or national population and not with a specific local area. I therefore developed my own slide and cassette presentation.

A self-made presentation concerning career opportunities is neither as complicated nor as time-consuming as it may sound. In fact, it is really quite simple and enjoyable to do. Here is my "recipe"

for a do-it-yourself slide presentation of local career opportunities.

## MATERIALS NEEDED

- 4 or 5 rolls of slide film with processing
- 1 camera that takes slide pictures
- 1 slide projector
- 1 tape recorder
- 1 reel of tape or cassette 30 to 60 minutes in length
- 5 to 15 records or recordings of songs
- 1 imagination

1. Take and develop slides of as many different careers in the community as you can. You can do this yourself with even a simple camera, or you can suggest it as a project to the school's photography club or to a student who is interested in photography.

2. Select and record some popular songs applicable to various occupations. "If I Were a Carpenter," by Bobby



Darin, and "People," by Barbra Streisand, are two examples. Let your imagination be your guide. But if you are not music-oriented, ask several students to aid in the selection.

3. Combine and organize slides and records to form a smooth and interesting mixture of the words and people depicted in the slides. For example, these lyrics from "People"—"People, people who need people"—could accompany slides of nurses, doctors, counselors, day care center workers, teachers, police officers, and fire fighters. Again, imagination is a main ingredient.

4. Allow mixture to last from 20 to 30 minutes, because too much of even a good thing can become boring. The timing can be controlled by the use of a slide projector that has an automatic timer or a remote-control changer. It's easy to determine the length of time and number of slides needed. If, for example, a slide is shown for 10 seconds, 6 slides can be

shown in one minute. For a 20-minute program, then, 120 slides are needed.

### **SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS**

It is advisable to get a release form signed by the individuals who appear in the slides. These forms are available in any good camera shop or through the mail from the photography magazines. Also, the copyright laws of the songs used in the presentation should be checked with the recording companies involved. A letter of explanation should suffice, as long as you don't plan to publish the package. These precautions are suggested not to frighten you but to prevent legal entanglements.

The directions in this recipe can be applied to any tapes and used successfully. Just remember to keep it interesting to the students; the best way is to involve them in the process. ■

### **An Introduction to Assertive Training Procedures for Women.**

1973. By Patricia Jakubowski-Spector. This introduction to the concept of the film series was written for use by counselors, psychologists, social workers, teachers and other professional and lay people who are in a position to facilitate the personal growth of women and girls who often need help in learning how to engage in assertive behavior which will enable them to stand up for their basic human rights and yet not violate the rights of others. 32 pp. \$2.25. (order #052).



WRITE FOR YOUR FREE APGA MULTIMEDIA CATALOG, WHERE YOU'LL FIND INFORMATION ABOUT APGA'S ASSERTIVE TRAINING FILMS. FOR BOOK ORDERS OR CATALOG REQUESTS, WRITE:

**American Personnel and Guidance Assn.**  
Publication Sales,  
1607 New Hampshire Ave.  
Washington, D.C. 20009

### **Leader's Guide to Assertive Training for Women: A Stimulus Film.**

1973. By Joan Pearlman, Karen Coburn, Patricia Jakubowski-Spector. This book provides a brief outline of assertive training, a group leader's discussion model and an elaboration of each vignette shown (the rights involved and suggested assertive responses). 24 pp. \$2.25. (order #053).

### **Women and Counselors.**

*Personnel and Guidance Journal*, October 1972. Judy Lewis, guest editor. Represents the voices of women who will no longer "accept the fact that this is a man's world." The problems are stated, solutions are proposed, and steps for implementation are given. 80 pp. \$2. (order #51-2-SP)

### **Leader's Guide to Back to School, Back to Work: A Stimulus Film.**

1973. By Joan Pearlman, Arthur Resnikoff. This book provides theory on the use of the stimulus film as an integral technique in counseling women in transition, different approaches on how to use the film, a model for debriefing the vignettes and a discussion model for confronting issues raised in the vignettes. 24 pp. \$2.25. (order #054).

### **Counseling Girls and Women Over the Lifespan.**

1972. By Esther E. Matthews, S. Norman Feingold, Jane Berry Bettina Weary, Leona E. Tyler. Develops and promotes awareness, understanding and knowledge needed by the counselor to assist girls and women in utilizing their potentiality in the world of work. Bibliographies included. 96 pp. \$2.50. (order #318)

# Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

*Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006.*

**Contemporary Issues in Counseling** edited by C. Gilbert Wrenn and Sanford S. Davis. Arizona State University, Tempe 85281. 1974. 86 pp. \$3.00 paperback.

This remarkable product of a graduate seminar on "Professional Issues in Counseling" is further evidence that Wrenn can do nothing wrong. He has written perceptive introductions to the three sections grouping the eight student essays: "Counseling Minority Groups" (one on the Chicano and the Indian, one on women), "The Counseling Process" (one on the counselor as catalyst, one called "Solo or Symphony?", and a third called "Counselor Education: Training or Therapy?"), and "Counseling and Mental Health in the Community" (one focusing on social policy, one on doctoral level professionals, and one on "systemic thinking"). Each has important implications for theory and practice.

**Survival in the Sexist Jungle** by Andrew J. DuBrin. Books for Better Living, 21322 Lassen St., Chatsworth, California 91311. 1974. 239 pp. \$1.50 paperback.

An industrial psychologist has industriously put together a survival kit for put-upon women. Fourteen forthright chapters deal in down-to-earth fashion with such topics as "Rejoinders to Sexist Put-Downs," "Games-womanship," and how to liberate husband, lover, or boss. How to apply for a job is covered, as well as how to file grievances. Strategies and tactics of all types are described, some pitched to a rather low level in this battle of the sexes. Without sinking to jungle warfare, women can gain much

know-how from this book in advancing (not only their but) our cause.

**Ribbin', Jivin', and Playin' the Dozens: The Unrecognized Dilemma of Inner City Schools** by Herbert L. Foster. Ballinger Publishing Company, 17 Dunster St., Harvard Square, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138. 1974. 353 pp. \$9.50.

At once edifying and entertaining, this scholarly book is a Best Buy for educators. Having learned the hard way—as white teacher in the blackboard jungle—about street-corner survival techniques transferred to the classroom, Foster here shares the nitty-gritty knowledge he deems essential for effective education of inner-city youngsters. He sees the taunting tactics of the title as representing life styles and ground rules to be accepted as givens in reducing white racism and fear of the unfamiliar and in enhancing teaching/learning in the inner city.

**Staffing Policies and Strategies** edited by Dale Yoder and Herbert G. Heneman, Jr. Bureau of National Affairs, Inc., 1231 25th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037. 1974. 297 pp. \$5.00 paperback.

This is the first of seven volumes planned as the official *Handbook of Personnel and Industrial Relations* of the American Society for Personnel Administration. Carefully organized, this book has seven detailed chapters with pertinent exhibits, figures, and tables. P&G'ers will find much fundamental material on such broad topics as recruitment, selection, interviewing, testing, job analysis, equal employment, personnel appraisal, and other personnel procedures from promo-



tion/demotion to termination/retirement. Practices and instruments described are essential knowledge for those employed in business and industry; they may also be applicable to guidance and counseling settings.

**New Roles for Youth in the School and the Community** by the National Commission on Resources for Youth. Citation Press, 50 West 44th St., New York 10036. 1974. 245 pp. \$4.25 paperback.

This nonprofit commission of distinguished members, headed by Ralph Tyler, describes here numerous programs around the country in which youth have been active participants. The "new roles" include building curriculum, teaching, communicating via various media, performing counseling and other helping activities, operating businesses, and serving on community projects. A wrap-up chapter suggests characteristics of effective programs and major steps in getting programs started and keeping them going.

**Earthchild: Glories of the Asphyxiated Spectrum** by Warren Brodey. Gordon and Breach Science Publishers, Inc., 1 Park Ave., New York 10016. 1974. 166 pp. \$9.95 hardbound, \$4.95 paperback.

One in a series of books "edited in tandem with the journal entitled *Social Change*," this nontraditional book has a preface by the series editor that starts with a strangely sexist solecism: "Man is an endangered species." Another editing inadequacy is the minimal legibility of the textual material, printed on left-hand pages against multiply gray backgrounds; the right-hand pages are mainly photo collages that aesthetically complement the text. Brodey, recognizing that "to each species its own species is special," empathizes with animals, insects, even eggs (eggsistentism?) and gives perspective to such concepts as time, cause-effect, and nationalism/war in a challenging idiosyncratic style.

**Roles for Sociologists in Service Organizations** by James E. Trela and Richard O'Toole. Kent State University Press, Kent, Ohio 44240. 1974. 83 pp. \$2.00 paperback.

Grossly misnamed, this little book deals effectively with the research role of a "social science" professional (could be a psychologist) in a setting such as the Cleveland Vocational Guidance and Rehabilitation Services, where both authors were directors of research. Role

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development and differentiation and the repertoire of roles are delineated, as well as numerous issues (e.g., research vs. services, basic vs. applied, change agent vs. technical resource) and both researcher and administrator problems and strategies.

**Annual Review of Behavior Therapy Theory and Practice: 1974** edited by Cyril M. Franks and G. Terence Wilson. Brunner/Mazel, Inc., 64 University Place, New York 10003. 1974. 769 pp. \$25.00.

The weighty second volume in this annual series includes 43 substantive articles under 10 groupings, with 10 substantial commentaries by the astute editors, who relate these articles to those in the first volume. Sensitive to controversial issues and to increased criticism from both professional and public quarters, the editors endeavor to comment without undue defensiveness. The articles themselves run the behavior mod gamut, such terms rearing their heads as reinforcement, contingency, desensitization, token economy, operant conditioning, and "self-regulation of behavior" (paradoxical or self-deceptive?).

**Careers in College and University Student Affairs** by William G. Thomas and Jane S. Pernaual. California Personnel and Guidance Association, 654 East Commonwealth Ave., Fullerton, California 92631. 1973. 77 pp. \$3.50 paperback (\$2.50 for CPGA members).

No. 7 in the CPGA Monograph Series, this 8½ x 11 publication is a systematic guide for those seeking student personnel positions at the post-high-school level. Detailed information is provided about what the field is like, where the jobs are, and how to get them—the last being the subject of the bulk of this helpful book.

# Book Reviews

Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to the Editor, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

|                                                                                                                           |        |                                                                                           |        |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| <b>Restructuring the Baccalaureate: A Focus on Time-Shortened Degree Programs in the United States</b> by Robert M. Bersi | p. 538 | <b>Exercises in Personal and Career Development</b> by Barrie Hopson and Patricia Hough   | p. 542 |
| <b>The Group as Agent of Change</b> edited by Alfred Jacobs and Wilford Spradlin                                          | p. 538 | <b>The Communication Contract</b> by Susan B. Goldstein and Luther F. Sies                | p. 543 |
| <b>Group Counseling and Therapy Techniques in Special Settings</b> edited by Richard E. Hardy and John G. Cull            | p. 538 | <b>Schools without Counselors: Guidance Practices for Teachers</b> by William B. Stafford | p. 544 |
| <b>Correctional Psychology</b> by Robert J. Wicks                                                                         | p. 540 | <b>An Introduction to Community Psychology</b> by Melvin Zax and Gerald A. Specter        | p. 545 |
| <b>Elements of Encounter: A Bodymind Approach</b> by William C. Schutz                                                    | p. 542 | <b>Breaking the Bonds of Racism</b> by Paul and Ouida Lindsey                             | p. 546 |
|                                                                                                                           |        | <b>The Human Constraint: The Coming Shortage of Managerial Talent</b> by John B. Miner    | p. 546 |

**Restructuring the Baccalaureate: A Focus on Time-Shortened Degree Programs in the United States** by Robert M. Bersi. Washington, D.C.: American Association of State Colleges and Universities, 1973. 160 pp. \$4.50.

A prominent thrust of efforts over the past few years to make higher education more flexible and therefore more responsive to diverse student needs and circumstances has been toward the modifying of arrangements and requirements with respect to time. Spurred by *Less Time, More Options*, the 1971 report of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, many traditionally four-year colleges and universities have undertaken to reduce the time required to earn a baccalaureate degree. This book identifies 243 such institutions, describes the programs that are in effect or are being planned at 73 of them, and provides a historical perspective on time-shortening and a thoughtful analysis

of the various ways colleges have gone about reducing the time students must spend to earn degrees.

The book is based on a national study sponsored by the American Association of State Colleges and Universities and the California State College, Dominguez Hills, and supported financially by the Carnegie Corporation. More than 1,400 accredited four-year colleges and universities were queried by mail in 1972-73; responses were received from 1,008 institutions, and the 243 institutions that reported proposed or operational time-shortening programs were contacted by telephone, leading to the gathering of more complete information on the basis of interviews, questionnaires, and available published materials.

The author makes clear that the purpose of the study was to gather information and that his purpose is to disseminate it. He does not advocate any particular program or ap-

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airman can bank and save a large part of his salary. Overall, he or she is in a favorable economic position.

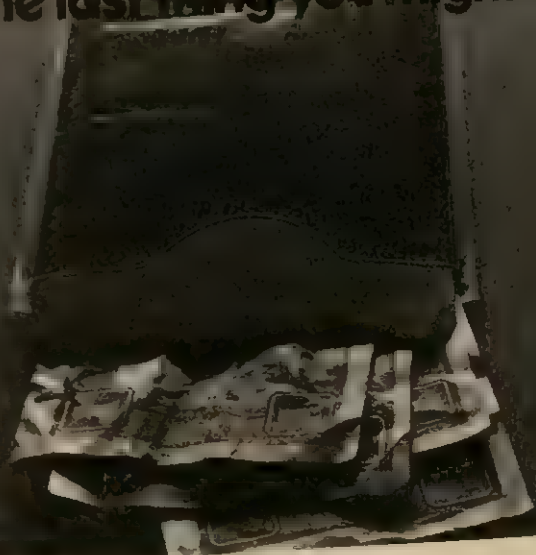
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proach, believing that a conclusive evaluation of time-shortening activities would be more appropriate "upon conclusion of the current period of general experimentation."

Although some of the information about particular institutions is probably already out of date, I believe that guidance counselors will find this book useful for the leads it provides to colleges offering shortened degree programs and worthwhile for the insights it provides with respect to the possibilities and implications (including cost implications) of such programs.—*John A. Valentine, College Entrance Examination Board, New York, N.Y.*

**The Group as Agent of Change** edited by Alfred Jacobs and Wilford Spradlin. New York: Behavioral Publications, Inc., 1974. 463 pp. \$19.95 hardbound, \$9.95 paperback.

If you want to know where it's at in group treatment methods these days, I strongly recommend that you read this extremely well-written and well-organized book. It is an excellent source for practitioners and students who wish to be introduced to the recent trends in this area, particularly those that stem from the fields of social psychology, education, and psychology. Traditional psychoanalytic and medical models of group treatment are not included in the book.

The book is composed of a series of papers organized within four major sections. Each paper is written by an author who was selected by the editors because of his or her expertise in an innovative area of group treatment. An introduction precedes each major section, and a summary precedes each paper; both emphasize the salient points for the reader. The opening introduction is the best analysis I've seen of the common themes that characterize the new approaches as they differ from the more traditional ones.

The first section is an overview of the group movement as it relates to our contemporary American culture. It deals with the needs that are being met by groups on an individual as well as on an institutional and social level.

Seven authors describe their particular group strategies or treatment programs in section two. A milieu therapy system is delineated, and a token economy system in a hospital setting is described. Arnold Lazarus discusses how aggressive behavior can be

modified in groups; Albert Ellis once again drives home his techniques for assisting individuals to think more rationally and respond with more appropriate emotional behavior; George Bach delineates his methods for training spouses to fight in more constructive ways; Arnett, Spates, and Ulrich discuss how Skinner's learning principles can be used to teach social behavior as well as academic subjects in the schools.

Section three covers theoretical issues, primarily dealing with alternative ways of developing conceptual structures of group interaction and ways to measure that interaction.

The final section consists of four papers that review the literature dealing with (a) the use of parents as treatment agents for their children, (b) the role of emotion in group interventions, (c) the use of verbal and videotape feedback, and (d) the use of systematic training as a group treatment technique (a la Carkhuff) as well as other behavior modification methods.

In summary, if you are interested in group counseling or therapy, this book is worth reading.—*Tony Roffers, University of California, Berkeley.*

**Group Counseling and Therapy Techniques in Special Settings** edited by Richard E. Hardy and John G. Cull. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 166 pp. \$10.75.

Reading this book does not encourage one to say, "I wish I'd written that." Even the title is something of a misnomer, since the nine "special settings" seem to be an excuse for putting between two hard covers several articles related to group counseling. The result is a hodgepodge of ideas and techniques (none bad within itself), no attempt having been made to organize the material properly so as to be systematically useful to a reader. The book could have made a better contribution had it been organized around common group themes or problems and had it suggested ways of resolving these problems in a variety of settings. Issues tend to be discussed in a haphazard, disorganized manner; the reader will benefit most from choosing a single article of personal interest or relevance.

Although the book's jacket indicates that Hardy and Cull are the authors, they are

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really the book's editors, as they have provided less than 20 percent of the written material themselves. Their chapters on public offenders, marital counseling, and the Fort Lauderdale SEED program for youthful drug abusers are by far the weakest, most superficial, and least helpful in the book.

Lassiter has provided a quarter of the material with his articles on group counseling with the mentally handicapped and in work adjustment situations. He has reviewed some literature and provided a detailed "activity schedule" that might be used by a group worker in these two areas. Based on impressionistic research, Lassiter's strength lies in his concrete ideas about where a group worker could start in a 10-week program, with some homework suggestions for the group members. A good supplement is Salhoo's article detailing specific rehabilitation programs with physically disabled persons.

The Allans' article on group counseling of the "disadvantaged" is solely a statement of personal counseling experiences that they feel could be applied to any counseling setting; it seems out of place in the book. The well-written Duncan article on group counseling of adolescents details a conservative, practical approach for the high school counselor. The Ross article on alcohol abusers provides a useful behavioristic approach to group counseling.

The book is directed to practitioners operating in schools, colleges, public agencies, penal institutions, and mental institutions. Since most of the material of interest to a specific practitioner should be available elsewhere, it is difficult to recommend purchase to anyone except rehabilitation counselors and libraries. One wonders about the justification for even publishing this as a book.—Larry Eberlein, *University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.*

**Correctional Psychology** by Robert J. Wicks. San Francisco: Canfield Press; 1974. 169 pp. \$5.95.

Are you a correctional officer, social worker, nurse, psychological intern, administrator, or for that matter any other person working in a correctional institution? If so, you may find Robert Wicks' recent publication of interest. Although the title is *Correctional Psychology*, this text and resource book is certainly broader in scope, encompassing educational,

training, and therapy programs plus selected problem areas within prisons and a section on community-based corrections. Persons interested in such areas as classification and the use of nonprofessionals in corrections may also find helpful reading material. A listing of core references is provided at the end of each chapter, and these references seem intended to structure further exploration in any of the 10 major areas of focus.

Three chapters deal with specific treatment techniques, including behavior modification, reality therapy, transactional analysis, and guided group interaction. Short 8- to 10-page discussions of each approach deal with background material, client population, application, and criticisms of the particular theoretical points of view. Case studies are used to give concrete examples of the approach and its usefulness. Within the section on behavior modification, token economies are explained as they have application in institutional and community-based correctional programs.

Not only in the above examples but throughout the book there is an effort to be practical and down-to-earth. In many instances, such as in the review of community-based programs, there is an emphasis on the problems of community treatment that seems to be an effort to bring the material to the level of operation and meet the practitioner on the street or in the institution.

For the student of corrections, prison violence is dealt with and exposed. Prison riots, riot prevention, self-mutilation, and suicide are examined for causes and preventive measures. Two problem areas that are unique to corrections are prison sexuality and the relationship between treatment and custody. For persons with a limited exposure to corrections, both of these discussions would provide valuable information to aid in better understanding the workings of a prison and the people who make up the prison scene.

The author concludes with some remarks about the future of correctional psychology. For him, the future will be determined by whether or not correctional psychology "can show itself to be an effective catalyst in the process of offender rehabilitation." There is a final plea to try correctional psychology before concluding that it will not work.—Richard E. Lawrence, *University of Maryland, College Park.*



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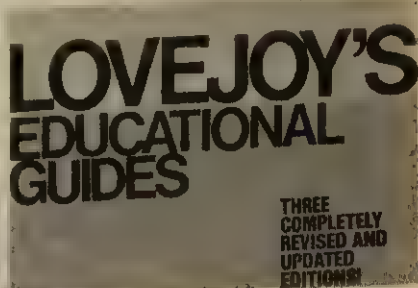
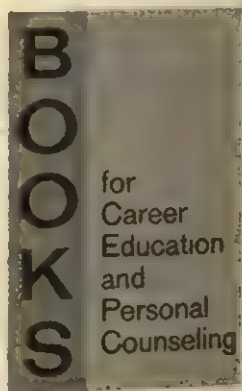
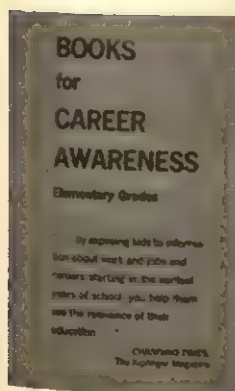
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**Elements of Encounter: A Bodymind Approach** by William C. Schutz. Big Sur, California: Joy Press, 1973. 118 pp. \$6.00.

In the introduction Schutz notes that this book began with a request from Raymond Corsini to write a chapter for a book entitled *Current Psychotherapies* (1973), which he (Corsini) was editing. Schutz wrote that chapter and then decided to expand it and publish it separately, resulting in the present short book. In the introduction Schutz claims that the book "is suitable for courses in psychotherapy, clinical psychology, social psychology, education, nursing, religion, administration, sociology, and perhaps for classes in other fields."

The main areas, and I use the term *area* rather than *chapter*, are the following: a definition of encounter, a history of encounter, principles of encounter, the physiological basis of encounter, the psychological basis of encounter, theory of group development, the encounter group, evaluation of encounter, application of encounter, and, of course, a summary.

In many ways this is a disappointing book. Over the years I have come to expect far more from Schutz. No one questions the contribution he has made with the FIRO-B nor the groundbreaking work he took part in during the early years of the encounter movement. However, he has moved beyond the tough-mindedness of the scientist-practitioner and seems to have entered the field of religion and zealous missionary work, which seems to be so prevalent in the popular press that deals with psychology, particularly encounter. As an entrepreneur, Schutz leaves himself open to numerous criticisms and is a much less capable writer than when he is writing for a more serious population, such as in the chapter in the Corsini book. In the section dealing with evaluation of encounter he devotes approximately three and a quarter pages to material that is far from being experimental and none of which attempts to evaluate some of the more serious charges against the encounter movement itself.

In summary, all I can share with my fellow APGA'ers is that in these times of tight money I would advise you to buy Corsini's book—which is a rich, full presentation and which provides numerous other points of view

much more objectively and is very well written—and to avoid the expense of the present volume, unless you are looking for something colorful for your bookshelf.—William J. Chestnut, *Indiana University, Bloomington*.

**Exercises in Personal and Career Development** by Bame Hopson and Patricia Hough. New York: APS Publications, Inc., 1973. 147 pp. \$8.00.

The main thrust of this book is to provide secondary teachers a group of practical exercises in personal and career development. For this endeavor the authors are to be applauded, since they make a sincere effort to get counseling-type developmental activities into the classroom.

The exercises are presented in a concise format that would encourage classroom teachers to use them. Each exercise has an outline that includes an objective, suitability group, time needed, size of group, recommended helps or helpers required, materials needed, and a description of the exercise. The book would have been strengthened if a number of the exercises had a more thorough description, especially for a classroom teacher who may not be acquainted with background information on either personal growth exercises or career information.

Unfortunately, the authors miss a great opportunity for cooperation by failing to recommend the use of a counselor as a resource person. A counselor-consultant would be a great advantage to teachers as they prepare, present, and follow up these exercises with applications to personal growth and career development. Too often students consider such exercises amusing games, and the real value is mostly lost because the follow-up applications are never made.

The book is written for secondary school teachers in England, and this is a shortcoming for an American audience. References to classroom applications are made, for example, simply as third year or fourth year. Fourth-year students in England are approximately 15 years old.

The career exercises use examples and terminologies that are culturally oriented. Examples of pay are listed in pounds, statistics and organizational references are given of situations in England, and work terminologies are often foreign to the American reader. This cultural gap, however, does not

seem to pose a serious problem in relation to the personal development exercises.

The book does contain a variety of ideas for practical exercises that could either be used by secondary teachers or adapted for use by counselors in group settings. Use of mnemonic devices aids interest and readability. A lack of cohesiveness is due to a failure to tie the theory, the personal growth, and the career development sections into an identifiable unified program.—*Elwood R. Peterson, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah.*

**The Communication Contract** by Susan B. Goldstein and Luther F. Sies. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 368 pp. \$12.75.

The intention of this book is to study and attempt to improve interpersonal and intrapersonal communication in a variety of settings. It is offered as a textbook for communication courses and as worthwhile reading for practitioners in psychology and education. Existential overtones are present throughout, with frequent citations of existentialist thinkers.

The authors begin with basic communication concepts and "the negotiation of the communication contract." The initial chap-

ters establish a sound framework, grounded in perceptual and transactional psychology, for understanding communication.

The chapter most likely to be of interest to counselors deals with communication-centered therapy. The authors emphasize the importance of analyzing verbal behavior and the pathology of language in the therapeutic encounter. The discussion of the language of schizophrenia is most valid, and I became quite excited about the possibility of the application of such communication-oriented considerations to other counseling settings. Several therapeutic techniques designed to improve communication are offered; while counselors will be familiar with role playing, they should find the improvisational, object focus, pantomime, and gibberish techniques enlightening.

A chapter that is likely to raise a few eyebrows and perhaps make several readers feel uncomfortable is "Metacommunication in American Education." It proceeds from a sketchy discussion of contradictory messages communicated through educational institutions at all levels—e.g., compete but cooperate—to a rather lengthy yet engrossing presentation of communication and interac-

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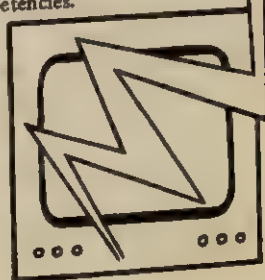
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tion in higher education. This is not a "scientific," research-oriented chapter but one that should be read by those engaged in higher education. Communication-centered activities for education are included, as well as numerous communication games to be identified and utilized in spontaneous improvisational situations.

Chapter 9 delves into speech, language, and hearing pathologies, and chapter 10 is entitled "Bridging the Sexual Communication Gap." The latter chapter did not live up to my expectations because of its limited focus on sex-role communication; human sexuality includes much more.

This should prove useful for both counselor and educator. The authors achieve the goal they set for themselves in a most informative and interesting fashion. In a sense, however, they also provide a challenge: the challenge of the application of identified communication concepts to helping encounters.—*John J. Pietrofesa, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan.*

**Schools without Counselors: Guidance Practices for Teachers** by William B. Stafford. Chicago: Nelson-Hall Company, 1973. 215 pp. \$9.95.

It is obvious to most educators that teachers in elementary schools need skill in guidance practices for children in their own classrooms. A book that deals effectively with this topic would be most welcome; unfortunately, Stafford's treatment adds little that is new. He purports to address his writing to "the questions most commonly raised by teachers about elementary guidance." I regret that so much of the material (two out of the four chapters) is directed to standardized testing and procedures of evaluation. If these are indeed the guidance practices about which teachers most commonly raise questions, the author might have made a real contribution by increasing their awareness as to the comprehensiveness of modern elementary guidance.

Sufficient recognition of the need for a permeating counseling and guidance function is not given. In his final—and best—

chapter the author approaches a more comprehensive picture when he discusses the teaching of human relations, but he limits this presentation to a lengthy analogy comparing the learning of academic tasks with the learning of personal behavior and includes cursory descriptions of four techniques: the unfinished story, life space interviews, sociometry, and role playing. The discussion would have been enhanced by the inclusion of more information on recent trends and techniques in humanistic education.

It was disappointing to find little material that might distinguish this book from those written in the fifties on elementary guidance. An exception may be the section on vocational development; here the author discusses problems surrounding too-early career choices. However, the materials on standardized testing and evaluation in the classroom seem to be of value only as reviews of courses found in most teacher certification programs.

The author's style is mainly hortatory. The value of his perception of where teachers should be cannot be questioned, but he suggests little to help them get there. Stafford cites numerous authorities and chooses his resource material appropriately, but I question the amount of paraphrasing in so brief a volume. Indeed, this book is even briefer than the number of pages would suggest, because both type and margins are noticeably larger than usual.

I am very much in agreement with Stafford's notion that teachers in schools without counselors need to be better able to carry out the guidance function. However, an instructor who uses the book must be cautioned that students will need much supplementary material if they are to develop an appreciation of the complex and comprehensive skills needed by those who profess to practice guidance.—*Sarah W. McDaniel, Hofstra University, Hempstead, New York.*

**An Introduction to Community Psychology** by Melvin Zax and Gerald A. Specter. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1974. 496 pp. \$13.95.

Zax and Specter have succeeded in writing a text that is an excellent introduction to the field of community psychology. Those members of the mental health discipline whose professional persuasion regards forces external to the individual as important, if not

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University of Georgia, and

Arthur Blumberg, Syracuse University

This book provides a comprehensive treatment of the central dynamics and learning vehicles of the laboratory approach as applied to sensitivity training. Its 39 articles, supplemented by extensive editorial introductions, describe a T-Group and its central processes, emphasizing concerns about goals, methods and results.

|      |           |              |
|------|-----------|--------------|
| 1973 | 589 pages | \$7.95 paper |
|------|-----------|--------------|

**GROUP COUNSELING: Theory and Practice**  
By Don C. Dinkmeyer, Florida International University, and James J. Muro, University of Maine

This introductory text surveys theoretical and pragmatic aspects of group counseling, with concrete examples of current practice. Theory and research in the areas of psychology, group dynamics, education, sociology, and counseling are drawn upon.

|      |           |              |
|------|-----------|--------------|
| 1971 | 320 pages | \$8.95 cloth |
|------|-----------|--------------|

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more so than those internal, will find the book valuable.

The book provides a historical perspective, a survey of endeavors considered to be community psychology, and an evaluation of programs to date. The authors appropriately begin and end their book with chapters that both define and question the existence and future of community psychology, which they define as "an approach to human behavior problems that emphasizes contributions made to the development of these problems by environmental forces as well as the potential contribution to be made toward their alleviation by the use of these forces."

Zax and Specter present the view that established mental health professionals are often opposed to the acceptance and practice of a psychology that stresses the potency of a person's environment. Such an approach presumes the mental health specialist to take the role of an active interventionist rather than wait passively for people to present themselves to the specialist. Regardless of where one stands concerning other related issues—such as the disease model, the value of one-to-one counseling, or the lack of decisive research evidence—mental health specialists will in the future likely find environmental factors increasingly accountable for their clients' difficulties. This is as true for the school counselor who feels unable to deal with a client's problem that stems from insensitive teachers as it is for the therapist who sees a client overwhelmed with depression attendant upon poverty.

Zax and Specter have ably reviewed many readings and research studies that otherwise might escape P&G JOURNAL readers. Of particular interest are chapters discussing the creation of growth, the enhancement of communities, criticisms of changing mental health approaches, and training for new professional roles. This text is timely and should receive wide use as a fine introduction to a growing field.—C. Patrick McGreevy, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts.

**Breaking the Bonds of Racism** by Paul and Ouida Lindsey. Homewood, Illinois: ETC Publications, 1974. 215 pp. \$8.95.

The authors have written from the vantage point of inside observers and participants. They are and have been involved in the whole

task of breaking the bonds of racism for many years, participating in the civil rights movement, writing for a daily newspaper, teaching, and consulting in teacher education. The first seven chapters are a walk through the world as seen by black people in general, but more particularly as seen through well-trained eyes. Those who have avoided courses in urban education or who had very cosmetic courses in the sociology of education could greatly undo the damage by absorbing these chapters. They are a blend of black history, race relations, and urban sociology and have been written with sensitivity and keen insight. The initiated will not find anything new, however, and the book is not for them. It is for those who cannot escape the issue of interracial living and who finally must surrender to reading about it.

Chapters 8 to 12 are directed toward education. The authors believe in school integration and discuss ways to make it work. They try hard to correct some of the long-standing myths about how black parents neglect the education of their children and about the ability of white teachers to work successfully with the most sociopathic children.

A collection of pictures well distributed throughout the book adds to its interest, and it is a simple and readable book for one who has not had—or taken—time to deal with these issues in more scholarly works. This book fills a need for those thousands of teachers, black and white, who live by slogans and clichés that would be seriously challenged by *Breaking the Bonds of Racism*.—Samuel D. Proctor, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey.

**The Human Constraint: The Coming Shortage of Managerial Talent** by John B. Miner. Washington, D.C.: Bureau of National Affairs, 1974. 270 pp. \$12.50.

Miner presents the best of considerable evidence of a future managerial shortage and attributes this expected dearth in great measure to a declining motivation to manage. The motivation to manage—his concept—consists of attitudes toward authority, power, competition, responsibility, self-assertiveness, and individuality. Attitude studies are offered to show striking shifts from a positive to a negative stance in all of these attitudes, together with increased feelings of rebelliousness, defiance, impulsiveness, and skepticism.



ticism. Another developing attitude appears to be lodged against large and impersonal organizations.

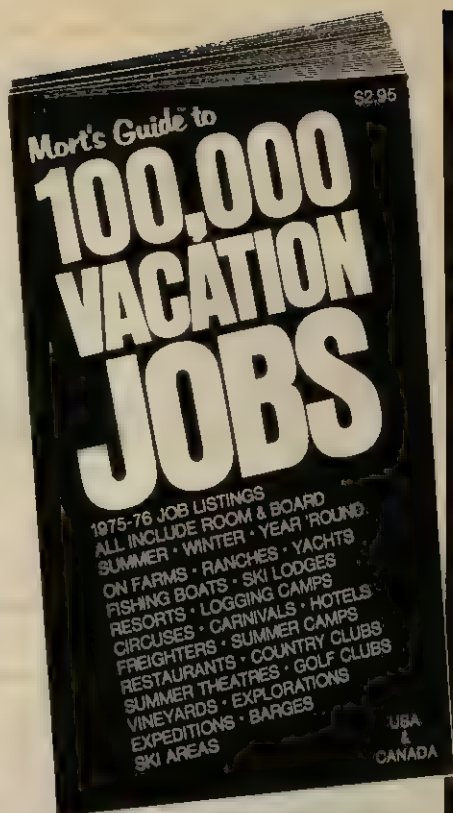
The author links these antipathetic feelings to changes in the family environment: a reduced exercise of parental authority and guidance, premature transfer of control from parents to children, more permissiveness, and less attention to positive accomplishments in children's development. Miner cites evidence of an association of anti-authoritarianism with feelings of guilt. Those with guilt feelings attempt to rationalize them away and reject situations requiring the exercise of authority, he says. Antiauthoritarian people, when placed in authoritarian roles, are ineffective for a number of reasons.

The author predicts that there will be fewer graduates having interest in work as a military officer, a personnel director, a credit manager—"people who tell others what to do." He forecasts an increased interest in such occupations as architecture, art, dentistry, mathematics, chemistry, journalism, and others not normally having strong hierarchic controls.

After presenting a gloomy picture of this manpower problem, Miner expresses confidence that it is not insurmountable. He believes that the immediate crunch can be averted by employers. He looks to societal changes for improvements over the long haul.

Essential in companies, according to the author, is managerial manpower planning, flexible retirement policies, and more extensive use of women and minorities. Further, he believes that programs in participative management, organization development, and management development, if used selectively and in accordance with company needs, can reduce the management manpower shortage. However, he sees no adequately developed social measures as substitutes for authority and hierarchic control in organizations and speculates on changes possible at the individual, family, and societal levels to provide future managerial talent.

This work is worth reading yet is not one needed in a counselor's library for continuing reference. Because of its unreasonably high price, I would suggest the book be borrowed from a psychology department or a local library.—Karl R. Kunze, *Kunze Associates, Oxnard, California.*



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# Guidelines for Authors

The *Personnel and Guidance Journal* invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) current professional and scientific issues, (b) new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners.

All material should aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners. For a detailed description of stylistic and other requirements, authors are referred to Judy Wall's article, "Getting into Print in P&G: How It's Done," in the May 1974 issue of P&G. Following are guidelines for submitting a manuscript.

## REQUIREMENTS

1. Send the *original* and two *clear* copies. Original should be typed on 8½ x 11 nontranslucent white bond.
2. Double-space *everything*, including references, quotations, tables, and figures. Leave *extra* space above and below subheads.
3. Leave generous margins (at least an inch all around) on each page.
4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.
5. Place references, each table, and each figure on pages separate from the text.
6. Place authors' names, positions, titles, places of employment, and mailing addresses on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.
7. For arrangement and form of references, subheads, tables, etc., see a recent issue of P&G. Also, please note that we do not use the generic male pronoun or other sexist terminology. (A valuable resource for authors, particularly in regard to references, is the publication manual of the American Psychological Association. Ordering information can be obtained from APA, 1200 17th St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.)
8. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.
9. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

*Note:* Authors bear full responsibility for the accuracy of references, quotations, tables, and figures. These should be complete and correct in manuscript to avoid the cost of making changes on the galley proofs, as these costs may be charged to the author.

## TYPES OF ARTICLES

1. *Full-length articles.* Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of double-spaced typewritten copy *including* references, tables, and figures). Include a capsule statement of not more than 100 words with each copy of the manuscript; this statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should appear on a page separate from the text. Article titles should not exceed 50 letters and spaces.
2. *In the Field articles.* Manuscripts should not exceed 2,000 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, or techniques.
3. *Dialogues.* Dialogues should follow the length requirements of full-length articles. They should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted for publication.
4. *Poems.* Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors.
5. *Feedback.* Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged on receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Generally, two to three months elapse between acknowledgement of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition. On publication, each author (the senior author in case of multiple authorship) will receive 10 copies of the journal. Poetry contributors will receive 5 copies of the journal.



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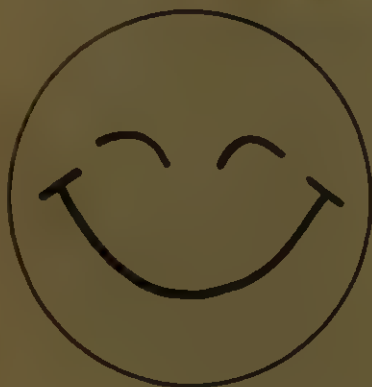
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# The Personnel and Guidance Journal

Volume 53

number 8

april 1975

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*rights and responsibilities  
of clients . . . evaluation  
needed . . . setting goals . . .  
the cooling out of women . . .  
changing covert behavior  
. . . a workshop and lab model*

## **In the Field:**

*photo counseling . . .  
the feelings class*

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**Manuscripts:** Submit manuscripts to the Editor according to the guidelines that appear in every issue of the JOURNAL.

**Subscriptions:** Available to nonmembers at \$20 per year. Send payment with order to Leola Moore, Subscriptions Manager, APGA.

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**Indexing:** The JOURNAL's annual index is published in the June issue. The JOURNAL is listed in *Education Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *College Student Personnel Abstracts*, *Sociology of Education Abstracts*, *Personnel Literature*, *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, *Mental Health Book Review Index*, *Poverty and Human Resources*, *Exceptional Child Education Abstracts*, and *Employment Relations Abstracts*. Book reviews are indexed in *Book Review Index*.

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Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered. U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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# The Personnel and Guidance Journal®

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|                 |                                 |
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| Library No. 961 | Volume 53, Number 3, April 1975 |
| Date ... 15/21  |                                 |
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## ARTICLES

|                                                                                                   |     |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| A Bill of Client Rights and Responsibilities<br><i>Stephen G. Weinrach, Lewis B. Morgan</i> ..... | 557 |
| Needed: More Evaluation, Not Research<br><i>Harman D. Burck, Gary W. Peterson</i> .....           | 563 |
| A Process Approach for Establishing Counseling Goals and Outcomes<br><i>Clara Hill</i> .....      | 571 |
| The Cooling Out of Two-Year College Women<br><i>Kathryn McDaniel Moore</i> .....                  | 578 |
| A New Behavioral Emphasis: Turning the Inside Out<br><i>Geoffrey G. Yager</i> .....               | 585 |
| A Model for Training Workshops and Labs<br><i>Frank D. Richardson, David Island</i> .....         | 592 |

## A COUNSELING FABLE

|                                                                            |     |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| The Rise and Fall of the Tested Jungle<br><i>Margie Lynn Gutgold</i> ..... | 598 |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|

## IN THE FIELD

|                                                                                                                        |     |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Photo Counseling<br><i>F. William Gosciowski</i> .....                                                                 | 600 |
| Affective Education through Role Playing: The Feelings Class<br><i>Jim Gumaer, Robert Bleck, Larry C. Loesch</i> ..... | 604 |

## New Directions in the Personnel and Guidance Journal

|                              |     |
|------------------------------|-----|
| <i>Derald Wing Sue</i> ..... | 550 |
|------------------------------|-----|

## POEMS

|                                               |     |
|-----------------------------------------------|-----|
| Client<br><i>Norman Fredman</i>               | 570 |
| Denial<br><i>Susanne Mars</i>                 | 577 |
| Career Guidance<br><i>C. Todd Strohmenger</i> | 584 |
| Silent Dancers<br><i>Sally A. Felker</i>      | 608 |

## DEPARTMENTS

|                        |     |
|------------------------|-----|
| Feedback               | 552 |
| Editorial              | 556 |
| Research in Counseling | 610 |
| Etcetera               | 616 |
| Book Reviews           | 618 |
| Guidelines for Authors | 628 |

## new directions in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal*

Derald Wing Sue, Editor-Elect

As your new editor-elect, this is the first time I have had to address all of you directly. I would like to take this opportunity to tell you briefly about some exciting new directions being planned for the *P&G Journal* and to ask your help in making it a success.

Beginning in September 1975 the format of the *Journal* will change to a much more contemporary image. First, the physical appearance (magazine size, greater number of illustrations, colors, graphics, and designs) will hopefully make it much more appealing and aesthetically attractive. It is our belief that the increase in artwork will add greater meaning to the content of each article.

Second, several special columns are being planned as permanent features. A "Social Science News Column" reporting current research findings in the professional journals will be implemented. Anywhere from five to ten studies will be reviewed, the column editor helping the reader distill the meaning of the data and integrating the implications. The column will differ markedly from others in that the findings will be reported in a newsworthy fashion. "Pioneers in Guidance," a series of interviews with distinguished persons in our field, will be published sometime next year. The idea behind this concept is to do a life story interview with these persons, using their lives as studies in the history of our profession. If you would like to nominate an individual for an interview, please contact me immediately. We are also considering the possibility of having invited reviewers write critical analyses on important books, monographs, or programs of special significance and importance to our profession. These reviews would be manuscript length and appear two or three times during the year.

Third, we plan to carry on Leo Goldman's tradition of bringing new voices and ideas to the *Journal*. This may be in the form of Special Issues and Special Features. However, top priority will be given to articles possessing broad general interest and having an interdisciplinary or controversial flavor. Ideas we have already generated include such topics as human sexuality and the counselor, fear of failure in the student experience, couples and counseling, a reexamination of Third World concerns in counseling, aging and the elderly, death and dying, multidisciplinary views of counseling and guidance, moral and ethical issues in counseling and guidance, counseling in business and industry, and single-subject research.

This is only a partial list of what we have generated thus far, and we welcome other suggestions. We would also like to make a special appeal to our readership for individuals who may be interested in submitting manuscripts dealing with these topics or talented and capable people willing and able to develop these themes as guest editors. The P&G Editorial Board would be eager to receive Special Issue or Special Feature proposals from you. If you are interested in any of these topics or ideas, please contact me by writing to me at the APGA address. I hope that you will like the new direction and look of P&G, and I look forward to serving you as the new editor. ■ DWS



"Who has  
deceiv'd  
thee so oft  
as thy self?"

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# Feedback

*Letters for Feedback should be under 300 words. Those selected for publication may be edited or abridged by the Journal staff.*

## **Punishment Is Sometimes Necessary**

Throughout the articles in the October 1974 *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL* featuring counselors in corrections, a recurrent theme is the punitiveness and oppressive nature of the correctional system. No one can disagree, particularly correctional counselors or those dealing with this population directly or indirectly. Even to the least sophisticated observer, the scars are evident.

There is, however, one area of corrections where control of the therapeutic milieu and intelligent use of punitive measures (not corporal punishment) are necessary prerequisites to bringing about meaningful individual change. That is the juvenile justice system. Here the counselor must assume the dual role of parent and therapist and must withstand the reality testing of developing adolescents. Often the counselor is placed in a situation in which he or she alone must answer the question: What type and degree of punishment is appropriate and will result in a growth experience for the individual? This is by no means an easy task. It is one that requires the utmost in self-awareness as well as knowledge of the forces at work within the milieu at any particular time.

While the criminal justice system needs comprehensive change at all levels, a skillful counselor in the juvenile justice system employing punishment as a negative reinforcer can promote meaningful change within an adolescent.

THOMAS RICHARD BARNES  
Youth Development Center  
New Castle, Pennsylvania

## **Helping Inmates to Grow**

Your Special Feature on correctional counseling in the October issue was indeed "one of the timeliest." I am a psychology instructor (with a counseling background) at a commun-

ity college, and I have come into contact with inmates of a correctional camp. I believe that, despite our professional training, any intellectual contact with the correctional system is not adequate: We need to accept the emotional fact that people in prison are not all monsters but are human beings with the same needs as ourselves. We need to break down the invisible barrier that is created around an inmate. Only then can we as a society begin to help the inmate (and ourselves?) reintegrate. And only then can we know what a rewarding and satisfying experience this can be.

I find teaching a very good experience, but nothing will compare to the satisfaction that comes from getting to know the inmates in my class and being able to help them learn and grow.

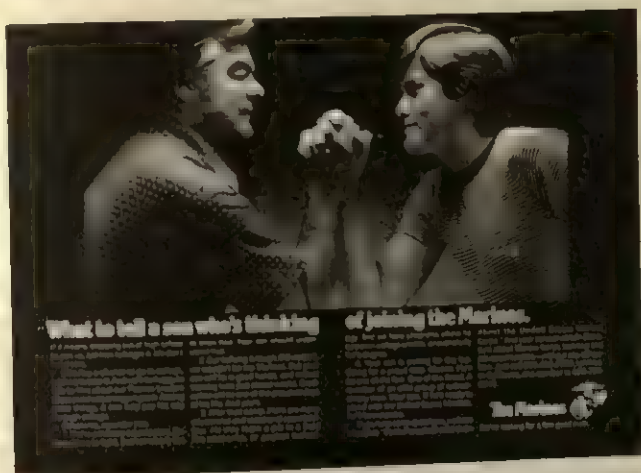
B. CANAN BROADBENT  
Charles County Community College  
La Plata, Maryland

## **Counseling as Guided Meditation**

I was delighted to see Gary Kelly's article "Mental Imagery in Counseling" in your October 1974 issue, but I was disappointed that he had to discount his insights and obvious interest in the subject by concluding: "To be sure, the techniques described in this article are gimmicks. . . ." Meditation long preceded psychoanalysis as a means of exploring the inner self, and it has been useful for me to think of analysis and psychotherapy in general as comprising forms of guided meditation, the particular form employed being suggested by the needs and personality of the client (and the abilities of the therapist/guide).

As in meditation, a general goal of most counseling and therapy is "awareness," or greater unity of the cognitive and affective functions. In my research (at the theoretical level so far), I have found mental imagery and the process of imaging to be uniquely

# What to tell a student who's thinking of joining the Marines.



Tell him the same things that we suggested a parent say to his son. After all, students come to you for advice, too. Here's how we put it in a recent *Reader's Digest* ad:

If it means dropping out of high school to join us, tell him to forget it. We don't need him.

If he has a chance to go to college, tell him to take it. And we'll be happy to talk to him about our Platoon Leaders Class commissioning program. Among other things, it can help pay his way through college.

Otherwise consider this:

1. We're a military organization. Nobody likes to

fight, but somebody has to know how. Your son should understand that.

2. Our training is tough. If it weren't, we wouldn't be the Marines. But your son will be in good hands, and recruit training lasts just 11 weeks. Graduation will be one of the proudest days of his life. And yours.

3. After boot camp, there are many educational and vocational opportunities. He may learn a job in a field like electronics, or aviation technology. And we have programs where he can earn college credits, or even study for a degree.

4. Your son is aiming for the top. Going for a proud title: Marine. He'll be one of the few. One of the finest. A member of an elite group of extraordinary men. Your son. If he's ready to stand with the United States Marines, he'll be welcome.

If you have some questions, we have a booklet: "Facts Parents Should Know About the United States Marine Corps". And your son can obtain literature about Marine Corps training and job opportunities—without any obligation. Just call 800-423-2600, toll free. In California, the number is 800-252-0241.

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sued to the task of viewing the individual as a cognitive-affective-organismic-environmental whole, and I have found that various forms of meditation have much to contribute to the application of imaging in therapy. Unfortunately, a systematic rundown of the various types of meditation has been unavailable, as far as I know, until recently, and I would like to heartily recommend Lawrence

LeShan's new book, *How to Meditate* (Little, Brown & Co., 1974). LeShan is a clinical psychologist, and he presents, in readable form, a guide to the choosing of one's own meditational path as well as a set of guidelines for psychotherapists who are interested in integrating meditation with their work.

JEFFREY E. EVANS

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

## **Special Issue in next month's P&G**

"Much has been written on career education in the past three years but relatively little on the past and potential contributions of career development and career guidance to it." So say Lorraine Sundal Hansen and Norman C. Gysbers, guest editors of P&G's Special Issue next month. They present a different approach to career education, one that emphasizes ways in which guidance and counseling personnel can become creative molders of their own professional roles through the development of comprehensive career guidance programs.

The May issue focuses on selected developmental career guidance programs in a variety of settings, most of which programs start with the career development of individuals and their needs rather than with the world of work. "Career," say the guest editors, "is viewed broadly to stress life roles and life styles, occupation being considered only one part of career."

The four broad areas covered in the issue are:

- Conceptual Models
  - Illustrative Developmental Programs
  - Methods, Strategies, and Competencies
  - The Interface with New Thrusts in Education

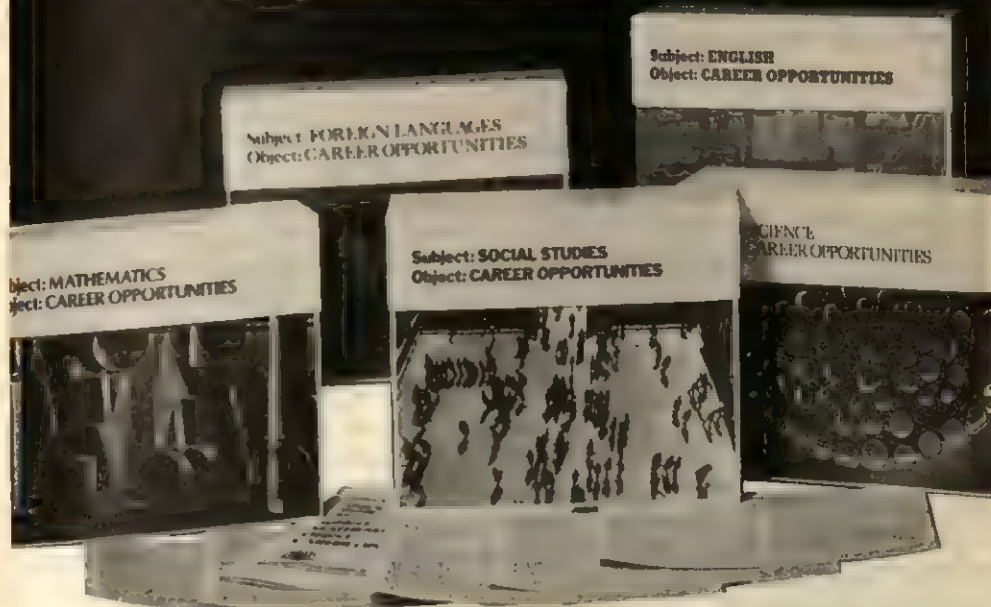
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# Editorial

## SEXISM REVISITED, OR, WHY GENERIC PRONOUNS ARE BAD

In my March 1974 editorial I explained why P&G had adopted a policy banning the use of "he" and "him" as generic pronouns. Not everybody agreed, and in fact some people, including women, have disagreed sharply. I've also had some interesting experiences, two of which I'd like to share with you.

Some months ago we received a manuscript that looked very promising. After it was reviewed, I sent the author—a woman, it happens—the evaluations by the two reviewers plus my own suggestions, one of which was to ask that she remove all the male pronouns that were being used to represent people of both sexes. She then wrote to say that she would send the revision along as soon as possible but that it would take longer than she wished because she was very busy with work and study, "to say nothing of a husband, three children, a house, and a cat." She added that she disagreed with the pronoun policy because the real issue is one of equal opportunity for education and career. I made a mental note of this, and when the revision arrived a couple of months later and I wrote her to say that we would publish the article, I couldn't resist adding that I would stop worrying about sexist language when the day came that a *male* author explained a delay in revising a manuscript by mentioning that work and study was keeping him busy, "not to mention a wife, three children, a house, and a cat."

Incident number two occurred very recently. I was showing my class a career guidance videotape that included brief on-the-street interviews with perhaps ten people in various occupations, who were being asked how they got into their field of work and how their schools had helped them to plan their careers. I had seen this tape two or three times before and had in fact commented on its fine qualities regarding both content and technical aspects. So I was taken completely by surprise when one of my students (a woman who is especially sensitive to sexism) commented after the tape that only one of the ten workers interviewed was a woman and that she was in a stereotyped female occupation (that of a model). There I sat, seeing for the first time this videotape's covert message: Men, but not women, hold a variety of jobs and have a lot to say about them.

What do these two incidents mean? To me they mean that we, men and women both, are not sufficiently sensitive to double standards of opportunity. We are blind—some of us more than others, but all of us to some extent—blind to what we never learned to see. If a woman has the same opportunity as a man for an education and a career *provided* that she takes care of the family and house and cat first, then she does *not* have the same opportunity as her husband. If a young woman sees a videotape in which nine out of ten workers being interviewed on the street are men, then that woman is not being told that opportunities are equal for women and men.

We counselors, of all people, should at least know our own blind spots, so that we don't unwittingly pass them along to the people we're supposed to be helping to find themselves and their places in an open world. ■ LG

# a bill of client rights and responsibilities

*Little has been written about client rights except on the issue of confidentiality. The authors of this article propose a bill of rights for the client in the counseling relationship. With each right there is a corresponding responsibility. The authors suggest that if clients wish to exercise their rights, they must also be prepared to assume a greater degree of responsibility. Such a change in the counseling relationship may bring about greater involvement on the part of both client and counselor.*

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The decade of the sixties saw the birth of the student dissent movement in this country. The phrase "student rights" became the hue and cry of a movement toward increased human rights for those in school settings. "Client rights" is a newer and even more nebulous concept that is only now, in 1975, beginning to be heard. Unfortunately, the professional literature contains hardly any reference to the rights of clients in a counseling relationship, whether the setting is a school, college, child guidance clinic, mental health agency, state employment bureau, or prison. Yet just as surely as college and secondary school students have recently been clamoring for and are gradually being granted rights that were long overdue (e.g., Pennsylvania Department of Education 1974b), so too are clients in a counseling relationship slowly being recognized as a group that has not had its rights acknowledged.

Interestingly, most of the progress in the area of client rights has been limited to patients in a hospital or institutional setting. In the case of *Wyatt v. Stickney*,

the court ruled that the humane treatment of mental patients is required by the U.S. Constitution ("The Courts" 1974). Such treatment includes the right to privacy, individualized treatment, and freedom from unnecessary medication and experimental or hazardous therapies without the patient's permission. The courts have been called upon by the Michigan Association for Emotionally Disturbed Children to cease their stigmatizing and sometimes traumatizing labeling of children by the use of such terms as "developmental disability" and "behavior disorder" (Trotter 1974). And at least one client group is fighting for its rights: Former mental patients drafted a "Mental Patients' Bill of Rights," which called for (among other things) the right to be treated with decency and respect and the right to maintain the integrity of one's own body (Mental Patients' Liberation Project 1971).

In its "Guidelines for the Collection, Maintenance and Dissemination of Pupil Records," the Pennsylvania Department of Education (1974a) recommends that



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**"Counselors who are accustomed to playing an authoritarian or paternal role might very well be reluctant to relinquish those facets of themselves."**

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counselors "stress the voluntary character of the [client's] participation." It further recognizes the "element of duress" often felt by the client who is coerced into a counseling relationship. The Guidelines recommend that those clients who are minors should not be counseled without their parents' prior consent.

Thus it would appear that individuals and groups from a rather limited range of counseling settings—largely hospital-related in nature—are, to some degree at least, finally being accorded human rights. There is still a dire need, however, to expand the range of settings in which clients are granted their rights so that they include such places as schools, colleges, outpatient clinics, employment bureaus, nursing homes, and parole offices. And any movement toward extending the rights of clients in a counseling relationship will also help counselors in evaluating and clarifying their own positions within the relationship.

Most counselors whose clients are seeking a greater degree of participation in the counseling process should feel a sense of relief. After all, counseling is—or should be—an interaction between two people who are deeply involved in working through the difficulties faced by at least one of them. Counselors who are genuinely interested in fostering greater self-responsibility and self-decisiveness on the part of their clients should welcome the client rights movement as a giant step forward in the delivery of counseling services.

Unfortunately, there will be those counselors who feel more threatened

than relieved by the client's right to have a greater involvement in the counseling process, since clients will then truly become co-participants and equal partners in the counseling enterprise. Those counselors who are accustomed to playing an authoritarian or paternal role with their clients might very well be reluctant to relinquish those facets of themselves in their dealings with their clientele.

Just as client rights call upon clients to become more responsible within the counseling relationship, so do they require a "letting go" on the counselor's part so that clients can make the choices necessary for the enhancement of their own lives. In short, counselors can help their clients move toward greater responsibility and autonomy by creating a counseling climate in which clients function in a more responsible and autonomous manner. Effective counselors have been doing this all along; less effective counselors will probably need a push from a civil court case before they take client rights seriously.

### CLIENTS CONSULTED

We have mentioned client rights; precisely what are they? In an effort to generate a list of client rights and responsibilities, clients and potential clients in secondary schools, an outpatient drug unit, a probation office, employment bureaus, a reformatory, and a women's college filled out a questionnaire that posed two questions: "What rights do you think you should have when you see a counselor?" "What responsibilities go along with these rights?" The figures reported below are, out of necessity, approximate. The procedures employed in the distribution, administration, and interpretation of the responses to the questionnaire were intentionally informal, so the interpretation of the results should be read accordingly.

Over 300 individuals, ranging in age from nine to forty-one, responded to the questionnaire. About 60 percent of the respondents were able to name at least one right, and the right mentioned most often (80 percent of the time) was that of "confidentiality." The next most frequently mentioned right was "mutuality," that is, the expectation that a counselor would deal in good faith, follow through on a promise, and be truthful, open, friendly, and patient. For instance, a fifteen-year-old girl who was in a reformatory and who had seen her counselor several hundred times within the past two years felt that it was her right "to be me at all times." A junior high school boy expected "to be listened to seriously." A seventeen-year-old boy wanted to be able to "talk to them as if they were a friend."

About 20 percent of the responses dealt with the prerogatives of the client. An eleven-year-old girl stated, "It's your problem. Why should the counselor make up your mind for you?" A forty-year-old woman who was seeing an employment counselor wanted the right "to fill out my own application and put down the true facts." A twenty-two-year-old man who was seeing a state employment counselor felt that he had the right "to say no." Another man in the same setting wanted "to be exposed to all job potentials, because in the final run, only the client knows if he or she is suited to the job." All these responses reflect a real concern on the part of clients for assuming more responsibility within the relationship.

### **RESPONSIBILITIES AS WELL AS RIGHTS**

It is insufficient merely to state the rights of individuals. Assuming that driving a car is a right, individuals who do so also have the responsibility to exercise this right under certain prescribed guidelines. Similarly, clients have both

### **"Counselors need to take the initiative in assisting clients to identify and demand their rights."**

rights and responsibilities in the counseling process. And the client's having a greater piece of the action means that the client also assumes a greater responsibility for what transpires. As necessary as it is to enumerate the client's rights explicitly, so too it is essential to state clearly the corresponding responsibilities.

Counseling seems to be most effective when clients take an active role and assume responsibility for themselves. But we cannot assume that clients are always aware of the active role they can play in the counseling process. Counselors therefore need to take the initiative in assisting clients to identify and demand their rights within the counseling relationship. The ground rules vary from setting to setting. For example, clients who pay are able to determine when, with whom, and under what circumstances they will receive counseling. Those who don't pay are often not in the same position to make their wishes known. The poor and the aged are seen as not knowing any better; the young are viewed as having had insufficient experience; the incarcerated are perceived as being too devious to tell the truth. In certain agency settings, clients who are potential recipients of benefits in terms of job leads, parole, or financial assistance must submit to counseling whether they like it or not. In essence, the system may work against those who do not directly contract or pay for counseling services.

### **A BILL OF CLIENT RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES**

What follows is a partial list of rights and responsibilities, most of which were



drawn from the survey mentioned previously. The list, which should not be considered all-inclusive, has been divided into three groups, each dealing with a separate aspect of the counseling relationship (see Table 1).

**Group I: Determining If,  
with Whom, and for How Long  
a Relationship Is to Exist**

Group I rights are concerned with the initial contact or lack thereof. It is not uncommon for counselors to support the position that clients have a right to receive counseling, a position that would perpetuate the institution's need for more counselors. A less popular position is that clients also have the right to refuse to be counseled. Currently, the right to refuse counseling is often withheld from those on probation or parole as well as from those in state employment bureaus, veterans' hospitals, and other public institutions and agencies. In order to receive a job, continued probation, or veterans' benefits, clients are forced into a counseling relationship. Although clients in school settings are frequently given the option of receiving counseling, they too are often simultaneously being subtly manipulated into the relationship ("It is better to spend half an hour with a counselor than five minutes on the office bench."). In almost all cases, except when a client contracts for private counseling services, it is a case of "father (or mother) knows what's best for you."

Just as potential clients should be provided with the right to refuse counseling, they should also be permitted to terminate a relationship on their own terms. This is a hard pill to swallow for many professionals who may be convinced that the client's situation might be resolved by further counseling. Sometimes it is difficult to let go and permit the client to be responsible or irresponsible, as the client so chooses. In V.A., state employment, and rehabilitation settings, it is virtually impossible to let go.

**Group II: Working toward a More  
Demystified and Mutual Relationship**

One step in overcoming institutional oppression is for counselors to assist clients in understanding how the counseling process works. Counseling need not be one of the "black arts." For a long time counselors have tended to view their services as a combination of an undefined art and a mystical process (Ivey 1971). Fortunately, we now possess the knowledge to demystify the process; we can describe how change occurs and how goals and the limits or parameters of the counseling relationship are set. Because counselors are now able to be more explicit, the potential consumer can be better informed and thus entertain more realistic expectations. This takes a great burden for the perpetuation of the relationship away from the helper and places it squarely on the client, where it should have been from the outset.

The decision as to whether a client should receive individual or group counseling need not be the counselor's. The choice should be neither arbitrary nor taken for granted. Just because a client comes to a counselor individually for help does not automatically mean that group counseling is ruled out. The choice should be proffered to the client after the implications of the decision are fully explained. The use of psychometric instruments should follow a similar format; after receiving an explanation of the various instruments, clients are quite capable of deciding whether or not they wish to submit to testing and, if so, which instruments might be appropriate and who will have access to the results.

Counselors who are committed to demystifying the relationship make their counseling records—including test results and related correspondence—freely available to the client. The data are used constructively in an attempt to place greater responsibility on the client. Where privileged communication is involved, the counselor makes sure that



TABLE 1

## A Partial List of Client Rights and Responsibilities in Counseling

**Group I: Determining If, with Whom, and for How Long a Relationship Is to Exist***If clients exercise their right to:*

Refuse counseling without being hassled

Receive counseling promptly on request

Terminate counseling

Select a particular counselor

*They then have the responsibility to:*

Inform the counselor of their decision

Cooperate and participate in the process

Inform the counselor of their decision to terminate and their reasons for terminating

Indicate the reasons for their preference

**Group II: Working toward a More Demystified and Mutual Relationship***If clients exercise their right to:*

Have a private, uninterrupted conference with a counselor who is prompt, attentive, and willing to listen

Know how the counseling process works

Set goals for themselves within the counseling framework

Choose between individual and group counseling

Read their counseling records

See their test results

Participate in the selection of any psychometric instruments

Agree to divulge privileged communication

Refuse to accept the counselor's professional recommendation

*They then have the responsibility to:*

Arrive promptly and participate actively

Provide the counselor with feedback about the efficacy of various techniques

Work actively toward these goals

Make the decision on the basis of sufficient information and, once the choice is made, remain in that mode for a reasonable and previously agreed on amount of time

Try to comprehend their meaning

Try to comprehend the implications of these results

Be aware of the factors involved in making an informed decision

Understand the limits to privileged communication

Accept responsibility for making a decision

**Group III: Establishing Measures for Quality Control***If clients exercise their right to:*

Evaluate the results of counseling

Seek consultation with another counselor or helping professional

*They then have the responsibility to:*

Inform the counselor of their criteria and of the results of their evaluation

Inform the counselor of their decision and the reasons for it

the client is fully aware of the limits to that privilege and of the fact that only the courts can provide a counselor with absolute privilege.

There is little doubt that many counseling sessions are uneconomical and sometimes wasteful regarding the wise use of counseling time. Far too often the counseling hour is spent on chitchat, banalities, and superficial "problems." It is up to the counselor and client, at or near the outset of the counseling relationship, to delve into the structure of the relationship and to set realistic and attainable goals.

### **Group III: Establishing Measures for Quality Control**

As the consumers of the service we call counseling, clients would seem to be the most logical group to evaluate counseling outcomes. Strangely enough, a review of the literature reveals more studies in which teachers, parents, supervisors, and administrators are the evaluators of counseling than studies in which clients are the evaluators. While the former groups undoubtedly have something valuable to say, client-consumers have the most to say; yet they are very rarely asked for their opinion (Weinrach 1974). Their opinion should be solicited and listened to so that the counselor can learn what worked and what didn't. Such data are bound to be a spur toward improvement on the part of the counselor—at least, any counselor who is a dedicated professional.

At times, a client may seek a second opinion from another counselor, a psychologist, or a social worker, just as a patient sometimes visits more than one physician for a prognosis. Counselors must accept this as a fact of professional life and should not become paranoid about it. As a matter of fact, the counselor who has any doubts or reservations in dealing with a client should encourage the client to consult with another professional helper. In any case, the client

should be free to do so without fear of penalty and should, after so doing, assume the final responsibility for making whatever decisions are necessary.

### **CONCLUSIONS**

Clients who assume responsibility for themselves in counseling are displaying autonomous behavior, which itself is a commendable counseling goal. But it goes beyond this. As counselors and clients establish rights within the relationship, they naturally become more responsible to each other—and rarely does this responsibility remain solely within the relationship; it carries over to other relationships as well. Responsible clients become aware of their own potential or power and begin to assume responsibility in other areas of their lives.

To deny clients their rights is also to deny them their responsibilities. And if clients cannot learn to be responsible, they are doomed to irresponsibility. Good counselors foster responsibility in their clients, and that's as it should be. ■

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# needed: more evaluation, not research

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The mandate from the general public, as expressed through legislators and government agencies, is quite clear: Counselors—account for yourselves! This thrust for greater accountability of counseling services has been classified as everything from the new whipping boy in education to a matter of survival (Brammer & Whitfield 1972). For years, however, most of the articles in the counseling and human services area have ended with the apologetic cry that what is needed is more research.

The purpose of this article is to point out that more research per se will not help much in the accountability area; what is sorely needed is more evaluation of our ongoing programs and efforts. It should be understood that in many instances it is difficult to make sharp distinctions between good research and good evaluation. Certainly, evaluation should use research methodology to the extent that it fits the field problems; and there are instances in which good evaluation may well be a part of a large research program. The use of these terms in this article is in the traditional sense, and this will soon become clear. Also, no differentiations are made here among kinds and models of evaluation

*The mandate for greater and more thorough accountability is here. The authors of this article point out that more traditional kinds of research per se are not needed; what is needed is more evaluation. They briefly clarify some of the terminology (namely, accountability, evaluation, and research) and illustrate some of the characteristic differences between evaluation and research. The authors point to some reasons that little evaluation is taking place and, with tongue in cheek, mention some of the more commonly used evaluative approaches. Finally, they provide five basic steps to good evaluation, along with examples.*



(formative/summative, context-input-process-product, etc.) and among types of research (basic/applied, philosophical/laboratory, etc.); details can be found in Scriven (1967), Stake (1967), and Stufflebeam and others (1971).

### **SOME DIFFERENCES BETWEEN RESEARCH AND EVALUATION**

To serve best the purpose of this article, the differences between evaluation and research will be exaggerated. First, a definition for each of three key terms: *Accountability* is "a set of procedures that collates information about accomplishments and costs to facilitate decision making" (Krumboltz 1974, p. 639). *Evaluation* is "the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives" (Stufflebeam et al. 1971, p. 40). *To research* is "to advance knowledge, i.e., to depict, correlate, conceptualize and test. These criteria do not include practical considerations—they do not require findings to be relevant to current operating problems, useful to practitioners, or translatable into new products" (Stufflebeam et al. 1971, p. 22).

What, then, are the differences between research and evaluation? In comparison to evaluation, research tends to be more theory-oriented and discipline-bound, exerts greater control over the activity, produces more results that may not be immediately applicable, is more sophisticated in terms of complexity and exactness of design, involves less use of judgment on the part of the researcher, and is more concerned with explaining and predicting phenomena. Conversely, evaluation is more mission-oriented, may be less subject to control, is more concerned with providing information for decision makers, tends to be less rigorous or sophisticated, and is concerned primarily with explaining events and their relationship to established goals and objectives. One of the main

differences between the two activities is that evaluation is done at the site of the intervention (in the field, usually), which allows much less control over all variables.

No attempt is made here to suggest that either evaluation or research is any better than the other or is to be valued more than the other. The point is that in counseling programs there are intervention activities that might better be evaluated than researched.

### **WHY IS LITTLE EVALUATION TAKING PLACE?**

A glance at counseling and human services programs in schools, colleges, and agencies reveals little evidence of meaningful or systematic evaluation taking place. One may find evidence of the number of counseling sessions provided, the number of clients seen, classes visited, jobs located, and so on, but these data provide inadequate information on which to base modification or curtailment of existing programs or on which to base inauguration of new programs or services. Why does this situation exist?

One reason must be the lack of concern for evaluation methodology in counselor training programs. A majority of practicing counselors have finished a one-year master's program in which they completed a course in elementary statistics and perhaps a course in educational research. The research course was probably taught to provide an introduction or overview of rigorous scientific research methodology (use of control groups, random assignment of subjects, use of instruments with high reliability and validity, operationalization of terms, etc.). What is wrong with this is that sophisticated research methodologies alone are insufficient in a field setting. Counselors therefore do not develop skills in program evaluation; that is, they do not receive instruction on how they might go about evaluating programs in the con-

text of the difficulties and obstacles encountered in the real world of counseling. Some who are earnestly interested in accountability attempt to force their field problems into inappropriate research design molds, resulting in frustration due to their well-intended purposes not being served.

Another reason for such little activity is related to priorities and institutional constraints. Counselors in schools and agencies with high case loads simply do not have the time to build evaluation efforts into their work. In meeting day-to-day crises, counselors lack time and

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**"The point is that in counseling programs there are intervention activities that might better be evaluated than researched."**

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assistance to conduct proper evaluations of programs. And they simply are not rewarded for doing evaluation.

A third reason that some counseling programs are not adequately evaluated is that they have either no goals or objectives or none that are usable. Often goals and objectives of many programs are found to be glib, obscure, or couched in meaningless jargon that defies evaluation.

Finally, many counselors feel threatened by evaluation of their programs. They feel so emotionally attached to a pet project or theoretical point of view that they perceive any kind of evaluation as a personal threat to their competence or professional reputation. For whatever reasons, this is an unfortunate situation, since the major role of evaluation should be to provide information that will enable counselors to modify and perfect programs and services (Stufflebeam et al. 1971).

With this background, a look at some of the more common evaluation strategies and problems associated with them is in order.

### **COMMON EVALUATION STRATEGIES: A DIM VIEW**

Little evaluation is attempted in some programs, and inadequate evaluation occurs in others. The following examples of common evaluation strategies are presented with a tinge of tongue-in-cheek cynicism, but unfortunately such strategies are often used in the name of legitimate evaluation efforts. These methods, discussed by Guba (1969), Stufflebeam and others (1971), and Wolf (1969), exemplify common ills in program evaluation.

#### **The Sample-of-One Method**

Sometimes decisions are based on an evaluation using a restricted sampling of opinion. Professionals often preface their statements with: "After discussing the program with my colleagues. . . ." or "Our clients feel. . . ." What has actually occurred is that the speaker has discussed the program with one or two others and then offered an opinion as if it were based on a comprehensive survey.

#### **The Brand A vs. Brand X Method**

Practitioners, indoctrinated by statistics courses, feel that a valid research effort must include a comparison group. Therefore, program leaders often attempt to employ the age-old paradigm of comparing the outcomes of an "experimental program" (Brand A) with a "traditional program" (Brand X) for the sake of appearing legitimate. Because of practical limitations, the outcomes of nonequivalent groups are often compared in evaluation studies, thus rendering the results inconclusive, if not misleading. This is not to say that the Brand A vs. Brand X strategy is never appropriate, but frequently this method re-



sults in a comparison of apples and oranges.

### **The Sunshine Method**

The basic principle underlying this method is that elaborate program exposure is evidence of a good program. This method is particularly appealing to administrators who judge programs on how they appear. Some examples of public promotional devices may include bulletin boards papered with flashy brochures, colorful newspaper ads with gimmicky catchwords, and a clever announcement on a local radio station. In the midst of all this glaring evidence, questions of quality and impact are seldom raised.

### **The Goodness-of-Fit Method**

The credibility of a program is sometimes judged by the degree to which it can fit into established procedures. Innovative counselors may antagonize conservative elements by striving to implement new programs that require additional staff, new materials, added space, or new administrative procedures. A service program requiring special scheduling or temporary adjustments in staffing assignments may therefore be considered frivolous and generally a nuisance. Unfortunately, seldom does anyone raise the issue of whether clients may benefit from the program.

### **The Committee Method**

Here is an easy, foolproof method for generating a favorable attitude about a program. All that is required is an assembly of congenial people who have been associated with the program and who are willing to discuss its effectiveness. After group process runs its predictable course, a committee arrives at a seemingly spontaneous consensus. Following this, the committee writes a report extolling the virtues of the program and sends it to the appropriate authorities. This method also fosters an il-

lusion of legitimacy, since the report is a "collective" endeavor.

### **The Shot-in-the-Dark Method**

This method of evaluation, sometimes referred to as "goal-free" evaluation (Scriven 1972), is used when well-intended program activities are conducted without a clearly established set of program objectives. Since there is no clear direction or standard, an evaluator randomly searches for any outcome measure that demonstrates the fact that the program has made an impact. Often evaluators attempt to make sense out of too much meaningless and irrelevant data and arrive at no conclusion.

### **The Anointing by Authority Method**

One recourse in program evaluation is the employment of an external consultant-evaluator. All too often the external evaluator is requested not to critique a program but to praise it, after having been cued by strategic interviews with selected individuals. If the consultant is of national prominence, little or no formal evaluation procedures are required to establish legitimacy. Among all the fanfare, entertainment, and carefully selected conversations with the "right people," the issue of whether the program has any impact on clients is ignored.

## **FIVE BASIC STEPS IN SYSTEMATIC PROGRAM EVALUATION**

In contrast to the above strategies, the following five sequential steps in program development and evaluation are recommended.

### **Assessing Needs**

A careful documentation of the problem (needs assessment) enables the setting of clear and reasonable objectives for which a program may be held accountable. Documentation may be derived from existing records or from special surveys.



## **Stating Goals and Performance Objectives**

The principal objective of evaluating a service program is to determine whether program activities are effective in reaching program goals. Goal statements describe program outcomes in terms of general behavioral goals that are not directly measurable. Therefore, in order to serve as meaningful guides, goal statements are reduced to measurable performance objectives. Performance objectives are statements that include three elements: a specific behavior, an assessment situation, and a minimum standard of performance.

Two categories of goal statements are used to describe the intended outcomes of a service program: terminal program outcomes and ultimate outcomes. Terminal program outcomes concern skills mastered, knowledge gained, or attitudes acquired at the time a client leaves the program. Ultimate outcomes state the impact the program intends to have on client attitudes and behavior after the program is over, that is, the degree to which the intended efforts of the program become internalized into the life styles of clients.

Once goals with performance objectives have been articulated for both terminal program outcomes and ultimate outcomes, the nature of the program itself becomes meaningful and concise. This is a crucial step in program planning and evaluation; it describes what the program is about, where it is going, and how one knows whether the "what" has been attained. Examples of these relationships are presented in Table 1. Normally there are several performance objectives for each goal statement; the table shows only one performance objective for each.

## **Designing the Program**

Once a program leader has articulated goals and performance objectives, activities to accomplish these are then

planned. Unfortunately, too many service agencies employ a cart-before-the-horse planning strategy in program development by outlining activities before desired outcomes have been stated. Clear program objectives provide an efficient guide for selecting activities either from already successful programs with similar objectives or from the creation of new techniques derived from theory.

## **Revising and Improving the Program**

Two kinds of evaluation procedures can be used in the review and revision stages of program development: formative evaluation (Bloom, Hastings & Madeus 1971) and transactional evaluation (Rippy 1973). The former concerns the evaluation of specific activities within a program as they contribute to the attainment of performance objectives; the latter concerns the assessment of the adequacy of communication among

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**"Too many service agencies employ a cart-before-the-horse planning strategy by outlining activities before desired outcomes have been stated."**

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program participants. Examples of formative evaluation studies include the following: assessing whether a trip to a factory had an impact on client attitudes about an occupational field, determining whether teachers learned basic principles of affective education from a workshop, and assessing whether individuals retained information about the hazards of drug abuse after watching a series of films on the topic. Most often, a short test used in a pretest-posttest design (Tuckman 1972, p. 21) is adequate to substantiate the effectiveness of a given

TABLE 1

## Relationship between Performance Objectives and Needs Assessment Data

| Needs Assessment Data                                                                                                                                                              | Terminal Program Outcomes                                                                                                          |                                                                                                                                   | Ultimate Outcomes                                                                    |                                                                                                                                                                               |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                                                                                                                                                                                    | Goals                                                                                                                              | Performance Objectives                                                                                                            | Goals                                                                                | Performance Objectives                                                                                                                                                        |
| A survey conducted at a high school revealed that 60% of the nonminority males enter postsecondary training, while only 25% of the minority males do so one year after graduation. | Participants will comprehend the relationship between the amount of formal training and the qualifications for higher-paying jobs. | Given an occupation of interest, a student will state educational requirements.                                                   | A higher percentage of minority males will continue formal education or training.    | The number of minority males in postsecondary education will increase from 25% to 35% on a follow-up study questionnaire one year after graduation.                           |
| A questionnaire indicated that 65% of the teachers in an elementary school wished to learn more about affective education and that 40% indicated a willingness to experiment.      | Workshop participants will be able to reflect feelings accurately in a one-to-one dialogue.                                        | Given a role-playing situation, a participant will reflect appropriate feelings. Accuracy will be assessed by other participants. | Teachers will be able to provide group experiences with free expression of feelings. | 35% of the teachers will use group experiences at least once a week in their classes three months after the workshop.                                                         |
| A follow-up survey revealed that 50% of the males treated for heroin addiction at a drug abuse clinic were unemployed six months after treatment.                                  | Clients will select a career alternative consistent with their interests and abilities.                                            | Clients will select and be admitted to a training program for an occupation or will secure a full-time job.                       | Clients will uphold the responsibilities of full-time employment.                    | Six months after treatment, 75% of the clients will either have been in training leading to an occupation or will have held a full-time job since termination of the program. |

activity in facilitating the attainment of objectives.

Transactional evaluation concerns the assessment of the adequacy of communication among the participants in a program. Often when programs become ineffective, the reason can be traced to a breakdown in communication among the individuals involved. Examples of transactional combinations include counselor-client (did the client carry out a plan of action set forth in the counseling session?), counselor-administrator (did the counselor and the administrator agree on program performance objectives and acceptable activities?), and counselor-teacher (did teachers support the counselor's program so that students would be released from class for participation?).

### Noting and Reporting Program Outcomes

It is difficult for anyone to know about the effectiveness of service programs without having a system for documenting and reporting the program and its outcomes to other professionals. Too often service programs carry on new and worthwhile endeavors that are neither evaluated nor reported; practitioners therefore do not have access to new programs and techniques, and administrators receive little feedback information on which to base decisions. In all service programs, the program's administrators should conduct evaluation activities and disseminate their findings.

### CONCLUSION

Good evaluation procedures provide program administrators appropriate information with which services can be improved. Many practitioners view the purpose of accountability and evaluation from only a negative standpoint, that is, to determine the imperfections of a

program. A more important purpose of evaluation is to assist in the determination of activities that will be effective in reaching program goals and objectives. This information should then be disseminated to the profession at large. Lowering client-counselor ratios, training more counselors, and increasing professional memberships are still important professional matters, yet now is the time for counselors to concern themselves with documenting the quality of services they provide (Goldman 1974). An appropriate evaluation strategy is one way of getting on with this. ■

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## Client

I sit in the outside office waiting  
invisible hat in too-visible hands  
ashamed to be seen here  
ashamed of a slight tremor  
which just shouldn't be.  
I know I'm not frightened.

I hate the smell of plastic "leather"  
the one-color walls  
and the clack of typewriter keys.  
A machine can only write "Dear Sir."  
No one ever carved Dear Sir into maple trunk  
or desk top  
or tattooed arm.

Must they always try to understand me?  
Can't I cross my legs in mystery  
and tatter shoes into enigmas  
scratch my head without meaning  
and sigh without profundity?

After all,  
even an hour is longer than fifty minutes  
and a lifetime too little to understand a life.

NORMAN FREDMAN  
Queens College of CUNY, Flushing, New York

# a process approach for establishing counseling goals and outcomes

## CLARA HILL

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*The need for specifying client expectations and goals in counseling and then determining whether those needs were fulfilled led to the author's developing an approach that measures client perceptions of changes on desired personal characteristics. This technique, called the Counseling Outcome Inventory, focuses on the individual's unique values and goals. It is completed by the counselor and client conjointly and provides a way to elicit and deal with a client's self-perceptions during the counseling session. The author provides a description of the rationale for and the procedure involved in using the Counseling Outcome Inventory.*

A difficult task in the counseling process is establishing goals for the client. Few clients come to the counselor with clearly defined problems; in fact, even after extensive self-exploration and the establishment of a base of understanding, a client's self-expression often remains global, vague, and ambiguous. Too often neither the counselor nor the client, upon termination, has a clear idea of what happened or whether the intervention was helpful. Setting up counseling goals is one method of determining directions in counseling and evaluating changes on these desired goals. Having

goals enables the client and the counselor to decide which problem areas need attention, to help to specify action plans, and to elicit the client's commitment to working on those plans. The purpose of this article is to present one method for developing and evaluating achievement of goals in counseling.

## SHORTCOMINGS OF STANDARDIZED MEASURES

Standardized counseling outcome measures may cause several problems. First, the abstract terms used may have different meanings for each person. Depression, for example, is an internal state that has unique experiential correlates; thus there is little way of determining what it means for an individual. Second, these tests are not oriented to an individual's unique needs but rather are based on global concepts of mental health. The problem with using one standard of mental health for all persons is that improvement for one person might be quite different—even opposite—from that of another person. For this reason Bergin (1971) has suggested that unique criteria need to be devised for each client.

Third, the outcomes of counseling are not judged by what the client thinks is important; rather, objective judges or counselors are often asked to do the evaluations. Elsewhere I have noted that clients, counselors, and judges use different criteria in judging the effectiveness of counseling (Hill 1974). This means that although a judge or counselor might think that counseling had been successful, the client might still feel dissatisfied and unchanged. The client's perception of change is an important factor, since satisfaction with the outcome is ultimately what determines whether the client feels that he or she is a more fully functioning person.

Fourth, the tests clients take are often paper-and-pencil evaluations that clients complete when the counselor is not present. As clients complete the test, they undergo a great deal of self-analysis—which is not recorded in the answers. In fact, once the evaluation is finished, individual items and ways in which clients arrived at answers are rarely discussed and used as therapeutic material in the counseling session. To make the most profitable use of the evaluation material, the testing should be done in such a way as to capture clients' thoughts as clients complete the test. Such input could accelerate the counseling process, since the process clients use in answering questions is as important as the content of the answers.

### **THE COUNSELING OUTCOME INVENTORY**

A counseling outcome inventory, then, should take into account the following features: (a) all terms should be behaviorally anchored so that the client is clear about their experiential definitions, (b) the instrument should measure an individual's unique goals, (c) the client's perception of change should be used, and (d) the instrument should be used to facilitate the counseling process. These

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**"The COI proved to be a valuable aid in concretizing what the client expected from counseling and in reducing the ambiguity about what had occurred during the sessions."**

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principles were the basis for the development of the Counseling Outcome Inventory (COI), which I adapted from Carkhuff's (1973) problem-solving grid.

### **Format of the Inventory**

The procedure consists essentially of three parts: (a) a list of descriptors, characteristics, or qualities that the client considers important; (b) the client's ranking of the relative importance of these descriptors; and (c) the client's rating of how characteristic these descriptors are of him or her. The following steps give a guide for counselors to follow in using the COI.

*Step 1.* During the first session, the client typically has many things to say concerning reasons for seeking counseling, so the second session is an ideal time to get goals spelled out more clearly for both persons and complete the COI. Doing the COI early in the counseling process provides a baseline from which to do comparisons at later points in the process. Naturally, the establishment of a good rapport between counselor and client prior to completing the COI will enable the client to feel freer in expressing concerns.

In this first step, the counselor should ask the client to specify about 15 characteristics, qualities, or descriptors that the client feels are most important. For example: "Tell me how you would like to be described. Mention those characteristics, traits, and qualities that are most important to you, whether or not you possess them. If it helps, think of those traits you would look for in a friend."



This is an exploration phase, and it typically will require some time to clarify the different characteristics and get as complete a list as possible. The counselor might want to have the client write out the initial list at home and then discuss and expand on it during the next session. When clients skip entire areas of functioning, the counselor can suggest and probe these, asking about things that the counselor knows are important because of his or her knowledge of the client's emotional self, physical self, intellectual self, social self, and vocational aspirations.

*Step 2.* The counselor specifies at least one behavioral anchor point for each of the descriptors. For example, if the client says that self-confidence is important, the counselor asks what this means in terms of actual behaviors. The client might say that this means speaking in class when one feels confident in the subject matter. This behavioral anchor point not only gives a clear goal to work toward but is also useful as a point of reference at later evaluation periods.

*Step 3.* This step requires a rank-ordering of the 10 top descriptors, the item of most importance ranking 10 and that of least importance ranking 1. (This method of scoring is used so that the total score is a reflection of the most important items.) Using only 10 items forces the client to select those qualities that are most important and also maintains a standard for comparison.

*Step 4.* The client is asked for a self-rating on each of the 10 chosen descriptors. The possible ratings are -3 (totally dissatisfied with level of functioning on this dimension), -2, -1, 0, +1, +2, and +3 (completely satisfied with level of functioning on this dimension). The counselor should probe further for the rationale behind each rating but still respect the client's judgment.

*Step 5.* For each of the 10 items, the rank-ordering is multiplied by the self-rating to obtain weighted scores of the

client's perceptions. For example, if self-confidence is ranked 9 and the self-rating is -2, then the score on that item is -18 ( $9 \times -2 = -18$ ). The scores are then added to get one total score, which represents the client's overall evaluation of his or her present functioning, most weight being given to those items of most importance. The total score can range from -165 to +165. The generation of a specific numerical score, even though subjective, lends a systematic tone to the evaluation process.

*Step 6.* The counselor should then ask the client which items the client wants to work on in counseling. For those areas that the client and counselor mutually decide are appropriate for their counseling sessions, specific action plans can be devised—with contracts, if so desired. Also, to provide target times, the counselor can ask the client to project realistically how he or she would like to be within a given time period, perhaps six weeks.

At this point different things can be done with the instrument. It could simply be put away until both client and counselor wish to evaluate the progress made. Another possibility is that further ratings could be done by the client on ideal self, worst possible self, self prior to counseling, or self at significant periods during life. The counselor also might ask the client how significant others in the client's life rate on these variables. The counselor could also rate the client separately on each of the variables. Each of these different ratings can be used to facilitate new areas of therapeutic encounter.

### **Use of the Inventory**

The COI has been used by 15 counselors, each with five to six of their personal/emotional clients. These counselors have used the COI for different purposes: to measure pre-post changes in client satisfaction with personal goals, to measure retrospectively the effects of

counseling when termination is imminent, and as a refresher when the counseling process appears to be at a stalemate. The counselors have reported that the COI proved to be a valuable aid in concretizing what the client expected from counseling and that it reduced the ambiguity about what had occurred during the sessions. In other words, use of the measure provided direction at the beginning of counseling and some closure at the end.

The COI is most helpful with clients who are unhappy but are vague and unsure about how this is manifest and how they would like to be different. The process of the measure allows them to think through their goals and values and specify what is important to them. If it is used with noncollege persons who are not proficient in verbal skills, the counselor might modify the scale to deal with behavioral goals only rather than personal traits and characteristics (e.g., "dressing oneself" rather than "independence").

The COI has not been as useful with clients who have a predetermined idea of

emotional client I saw at a university counseling center.

## CASE STUDY

Ginny, age 23, a married Jewish woman with no children, was a college senior majoring in history and hoping to find a teaching job in a local high school when she graduated. Her presenting problem was chronic depression since her mother's death two years previously. This depression consisted of existential identity anxiety, guilt over not having done more for her mother, and a fear that she would "waste" her life as her mother did in denying all self-expression. For the first five sessions, we focused on exploring her feelings, gaining insight, and giving feedback through interpersonal process recall via videotape.

At this point Ginny had come to understand some of her feelings surrounding her mother's death and was able to allow herself to have these feelings rather than punishing herself for feeling depressed. Even though she was able to express and accept many of her feelings, however, she did not know how to stop her self-defeating behaviors, such as overeating and excessive use of drugs, which had come to be well-ingrained habits. We were at a turning point in counseling, and I felt the need to specify what changes had occurred and which ones we still needed to work on. So during the sixth session, Ginny and I completed the COI according to the steps described above. Her self-ratings are shown in Table 1. In addition to rating how she presently perceived herself (Middle), Ginny also indicated how she perceived herself prior to counseling (Precounseling). As can be seen, Ginny felt that substantial changes had occurred since counseling had begun. This indicates that Ginny's understanding of her behavior enabled her to feel more positive about herself.

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**"Because it is process-oriented, material generated can be discussed immediately and dealt with in a therapeutic fashion, thus accelerating counseling."**

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what should happen in the counseling hour. They may have something very important to discuss, at which point the introduction of the COI would hinder very real current needs. Similarly, clients who are very sure about what they want out of counseling may not benefit so much from the use of the COI, although it might help clarify these goals and bring them out into the open.

In the following case study I describe the use of the COI with a personal/

TABLE 1

## Case Study of the Use of the Counseling Outcome Inventory

| Descriptor                               | Behavioral Anchor                        | Rank | Precounseling |                            | Middle |                            | End Counseling |                            | New Rank |
|------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|------|---------------|----------------------------|--------|----------------------------|----------------|----------------------------|----------|
|                                          |                                          |      | Rating        | Product of Rank and Rating | Rating | Product of Rank and Rating | Rating         | Product of Rank and Rating |          |
| Self-confidence*                         | Fewer negative self-statements           | 10   | -2            | -20                        | 0      | 0                          | +2             | +20                        | 3        |
| Loss weight*                             | Loss 30 pounds                           | 9    | -3            | -27                        | -3     | -27                        | -2             | -18                        | 10       |
| Idealistic but reality-oriented          | List pros and cons of each idea          | 8    | 0             | 0                          | 0      | 0                          | +1             | +8                         | 4        |
| Assert myself intelligently              | Plan what to say and then speak in class | 7    | -1            | -7                         | +1     | +7                         | +1             | +7                         | 9        |
| Not aim for others' approval but for own | Increase in self-pleasing statements     | 6    | -2            | -12                        | +2     | +12                        | +2             | +12                        | 6        |
| Not be a loud, whiney, "Jewish bitch"*   | Change on videotape                      | 5    | -2            | -10                        | +1     | +5                         | +3             | +15                        |          |
| Grow with husband                        | Increase in rated satisfaction           | 4    | -2            | -8                         | +3     | +12                        | +2             | +8                         | 8        |
| Value my feelings*                       | Increase number of feeling words used    | 3    | -2            | -6                         | +1     | +3                         | +3             | +9                         | 5        |
| Be honest in communication               | Tell husband feelings as they arise      | 2    | -1            | -2                         | +2     | +4                         | +2             | +4                         | 7        |
| Take responsibility for myself*          | More internal than external statements   | 1    | -3            | -3                         | +1     | +1                         | +3             | +3                         |          |
| Total Score:                             |                                          |      |               | -95                        |        | +17                        |                | +68                        |          |

\*Those aspects the client wished to work on in counseling.



In subsequent sessions we began working on specific problem areas Ginny had indicated were most important for her. The first program we implemented was a behavioral approach to weight control (Stuart & Davis 1972), in which we analyzed her eating and exercise habits and worked on systematically altering them. Concurrently, we discussed assertiveness and positive self-statements, using videotape playback procedures to assess gains.

After two months Ginny felt that she wanted to terminate so that she could develop a sense of independence in some of the new behaviors. I asked her to complete the COI again (End Counseling), using the previous descriptions and behavioral anchors but not looking at the previous ratings. She also reranked her descriptors, since she indicated that they had shifted in importance.

Using the old rankings for comparison purposes, Ginny again felt that she had changed substantially. Interestingly, the new rankings indicated that those goals she had mastered had receded in importance, whereas other goals became more prominent. Although she was not at the level she optimally wanted to be (having a total score of 100), she felt—and I agreed—that she would best achieve that score on her own. We had four more sessions, spread out over two months, in which we discussed her progress. Counseling then terminated. At a three-month follow-up, Ginny said she felt good about herself and was still working with the goals.

## CONCLUSION

The Counseling Outcome Inventory provides a process-oriented approach to the evaluation of the achievement of goals deemed important to the client. Rather than leaving the counseling process vague and ambiguous, the counselor and client are able to determine what has

happened and what remains to be dealt with.

Since it is well-structured, the technique can be used to elicit clinical data from the client in a relatively short period of time. The same amount of data might be lost in paper-and-pencil testing or might require several sessions of counseling. Because it is a process-oriented approach, material generated can be discussed immediately and dealt with in a therapeutic fashion, thus accelerating counseling. The COI could also be used to measure the effects of various intervention techniques with a client. For example, in the case study of Ginny, insight-oriented counseling and behavioral intervention yielded different results.

Obviously, client self-report of change is not the only measure of counseling outcome that could be used; evaluations by the counselor, friends, relatives, and outside judges are also valuable. Determining which criterion measures are to be used for evaluation would depend on the reasons for evaluation. If the reason for evaluation is client satisfaction, for example, then client self-report would be appropriate. If the institution required justification for counseling centers, measures such as increased grade point averages or a lower dropout rate might be preferable. ■

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## **Denial**

Need vocational counseling? Not me!  
You see, work isn't my problem.

If only I could find a job I like  
or enjoy what I'm working at.  
If only my boss didn't hassle me  
with rules, demands, and deadlines.  
If only the other workers on the job  
would cooperate and cover for me.  
If only they would all realize  
that I need to be late, absent, inconsistent or unreliable,  
because sometimes I'm bored, hassled, angry or unhappy,  
and often success scares me as much as failure.

But you see—work isn't my problem!  
So why do I need vocational counseling?

SUSANNE MARS  
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# the cooling out of two-year college women

KATHRYN McDANIEL MOORE

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*The author describes the concept of "cooling out" as developed by Burton Clark and examines its applicability to the experience of women in the two-year college. She looks at four cooling out agents: parents, uncontrollable circumstances, counselors, and the two-year college itself. The discussion is based on interviews with 62 women in three two-year colleges. The author concludes that cooling out as experienced by women is congruent with but not exactly like the process as described by Clark. Nevertheless, the importance of counseling to the cooling out function is reasserted.*

In recent years we have become more aware that women in our society do not have equal access or equal opportunity to achieve educational and career goals. In high school, for example, women receive higher grades and test scores than men, but fewer women than men enter college, fewer go on to graduate work, and fewer are found in the professions and at top levels of management and administration. Facts like this provoke a number

of serious questions about the process of higher education as it affects women. This article examines data concerning women enrolled in two-year colleges in order to describe a process that is an effective method for discouraging women from achieving their educational and vocational aspirations: the cooling out process.

## CLARK'S COOLING OUT FUNCTION

In 1960, sociologist Burton Clark called attention to what he termed the "cooling out function" in higher education. He noted that "a major problem of democratic society is the inconsistency between encouragement to achieve and the realities of limited opportunity" (p. 569). He focused on how two-year colleges in particular serve to sort and sift students desiring equal access and equal opportunity in the higher education system such that nearly 50 percent of the students who enter two-year colleges do not progress beyond them. He defined cooling out as the process of "rechanneling . . . student aspirations in line with their abilities, thus avoiding conflict created by disappointment and feelings of failure" (p. 569). The essential result of cooling out is the redefinition of transfer students as terminal students. Cooling out is inherently a "soft," or amelioratory, process; it is designed to minimize stress on both the individual and the institution, as well as others involved during the process of change.

The process as described by Clark entails a student's following a structured sequence of guidance efforts involving



mandatory courses in career planning and self-evaluation, which results in "reorientation" of the student rather than dismissal. The process begins with pre-entrance testing, which identifies low-achieving students and assigns them to remedial classes. The process is completed when the "overaspiring student" is rechanneled out of a transfer program and into a terminal curriculum. Throughout the process the student is kept in contact with guidance personnel, who keep careful track of the student's "progress."

The generalizable qualities of cooling out as Clark saw them involve *offering substitutes or alternatives* to the desired goal (here a transfer program); *encouraging gradual disengagement* by having the student try out other courses of study; *amassing objective data* against the preference in terms of grades, aptitude tests, and interest tests; *consoling and counseling* the student through personal though "objective" contacts; and *stressing the relative values of many kinds* of persons and many kinds of talents other than the preferred choice.

A final important requirement of the process is that it "must be kept reasonably away from public scrutiny and not clearly perceived or understood by prospective clientele" (p. 575). Part of the need for concealment may well be a good faith desire on the part of the agents of the process to enable students to leave the two-year college "prepared for activities that satisfy them, instead of being branded as failures" (Robert G. Sproul as quoted in Clark, p. 576). But another reason for concealment is that resistance to the process could be organized and the effectiveness of the process greatly if not totally diminished.

## THE COOLING OUT OF WOMEN

In Clark's research, the triggering mechanism of the cooling out process was found to be achievement testing.

Students who scored high on entrance tests passed through untouched by the process unless there were subsequent failures, but students who scored low were programmed into the process from the beginning. In the research reported in this article, the triggering mechanism is gender. Two-year college students who were male were not affected by the forms of cooling out described below, but students who were female were often subjected to it.

While Clark sought to explain the structure and process of cooling out for a general population of low-achieving students in two-year colleges, the research reported here has focused, in part, on the structures and processes by which women are cooled out. The findings are based on half-hour interviews with 62 women in three two-year colleges in central New York state. The interviews are part of a larger ongoing project dealing with the characteristics, perceptions, and career determinants of 1,200 students (males and females) in four two-year colleges.<sup>1</sup>

The women interviewed were selected on the basis of their career choices as indicated in a questionnaire administered at their colleges one month prior to the scheduled interviews. Of the 62 women interviewed, 28 indicated traditional career choices and 34 indicated nontraditional career choices. For purposes of the study, nontraditional careers were defined as those in which fewer than 40 percent of the people employed are women (based on U.S. Census and U.S. Department of Labor statistics). Law, medicine, business administration, and electronics exemplify the category. Such choices have also been labeled "role-innovative" or "pioneer" careers. Traditional career choices, such

<sup>1</sup>The research was conducted under a grant from the Bureau of Two-Year College Programs, New York State Education Department, with ESEA Title III funds. The project is housed in the Institute for Research and Development in Occupational Education at Cornell University.

as nursing, elementary school teaching, and secretarial work, were defined as those occupations employing more than 66 percent women.

When applied to women, the definition of cooling out is somewhat different from the way Clark used it. Clark focused on the rechanneling of transfer and latent transfer students into terminal curriculums. This study focuses on the rechanneling of nontraditional career aspirations into traditional choices. In most cases (but not all) the two definitions coincide; a woman desiring to be a physician must also desire transfer to a four-year college, and to be cooled out of one is to be cooled out of the other. But some women may desire nontraditional careers, such as data processing, that do not require transfer to a four-year college, in which case to be cooled out of the career choice is not to be cooled out of the transfer track. Nevertheless, the general concept of cooling out, namely the amelioratory process of lowering and rechanneling aspirations, suits women's career choices as well as it does the transfer process.

Because a crucial condition of the cooling out process is that it is concealed, our interviewers could not ask women to describe the ways they felt they were being cooled out. Instead we directed our questions toward finding out what the women's career aspirations were, who influenced them, what obstacles they foresaw, in what ways counselors were helpful or not helpful, and how they were taking marriage and family into account. Within that context we observed evidence of ambivalence, anger, passive

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**"The cooling out process is completed when the 'overaspiring student' is rechanneled out of a transfer program and into a terminal curriculum."**

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resistance, and circumscribed and circumspect planning. Struck by these reactions, we began to probe for their causes. Our findings are tentative and subject to greater scrutiny, but we believe they merit consideration.

Preliminary analysis of the data collected from these interviews reveals four principal agents that, separately and together, function to cool women out of straightforward, unblocked, and open pursuit of their career choices and life plans. They are: parents, uncontrollable circumstances, counselors, and the two-year institution. Only two of the four factors have to do with the two-year college directly; the necessity of incorporating factors external to the college was dictated by the fact that most women who entered the college had already made a career decision and thus in some cases had already been subjected to cooling out.

### **Parents as Coolers**

One of the most obvious, or at least most written about, influences on the socialization of women and girls into strictly feminine roles is that of parents. Thus it is not surprising that of the 62 women in the interview sample, 32 listed one or both parents as having had the greatest influence on their career choices. Generally a woman felt that her parents supported her career choice if the career was one the parent(s) had desired for her, was one they felt she was well suited to follow, or was one in which a parent was already employed.

The negative aspects of parental influence, the symptoms of cooling out, were most often expressed by the women who had selected nontraditional careers. For example, a woman who planned on being a psychologist said, about her father, "He goes along with it, but in the back of his mind he still thinks girls should be homemakers." Another said, "He thinks it's okay—not really great, but okay. If I were a son, it would be



different." And another said, "He feels women should get married. He looks at it [her career plans] as if it were a joke."

Women in nontraditional careers cited fathers more than mothers as having had a strong influence on their career choice. But both traditional and nontraditional women provided examples of strong negative reactions to fathers. For example, a frequently mentioned paternal cooling out "technique" was the lack of willingness (not the lack of ability) to finance a daughter's education. Marked bitterness emerged in the responses of those women who were forced to pay their own way because the father refused. On the other hand, the women viewed a parent's willingness to pay as support for and approval of the women's aspirations. For example, when asked in what ways a father encouraged her career, many women stated simply, "He's paying for it."

Women who had chosen nontraditional careers cited mothers less often than fathers as the most influential parent. The mother of a nontraditional woman was frequently described as being neutral or passive in regard to her daughter's career decision. The mother who was strongly negative was described as not wanting her daughter to go into an "antisocial career" such as law or an "unfeminine career" such as physical education or a "too different" career such as electrical technology. There is current research indicating that mothers who work have a different effect on their daughters' careers than do mothers who do not work or have never worked (Veres 1974). In general, when the women in our sample commented on their mothers' occupations, it was positive. Several women whose mothers were solely housewives mentioned that their mothers hoped they would do or be something more. Few of either the traditional or the nontraditional women indicated having mothers who were either strongly enthusiastic or directive. But

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**"Few administrative or counseling personnel were making aggressive or creative attempts to attract and promote women's entrance into and success in traditionally male fields."**

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when there was conflict, it usually occurred for daughters who had chosen a nontraditional career.

#### **Uncontrollable Circumstances as Coolers**

We labeled the second factor that operates to cool women out "uncontrollable circumstances." The information on this emerged when we asked women to answer the question, "What do you think will be the biggest difficulty or obstacle you will face in reaching your career goals?" Their responses can be lumped into three large categories: money, competition, and being a woman. Money was viewed as an obstacle if parents refused to pay for further education, if the career chosen were costly (e.g., medicine), or if obtaining credit to start a business were viewed as extra difficult for a woman. In many cases the responses to present or anticipated lack of money were various forms of contingency planning. In one case, for example, a woman was completing a secretarial course in order to provide herself with steady employment before and during her undergraduate and law school years.

Competition was perceived as more than simply a reflection of oversupply of people for jobs. It was broken down into two specific kinds: competition with other women for jobs in such female fields as teaching or merchandizing; and competition with men in such fields as law, medicine, and architecture—in which, in addition to having to meet high academic standards, being female is viewed as a handicap.

Not surprisingly, femaleness was cited



as an obstacle most often by women planning nontraditional careers. It ranked third after money and competition in importance for these women, whereas only one woman in the traditional category felt that femaleness was an obstacle. Also not surprisingly, several women planning such traditional careers as child study or elementary education felt their femininity to be an asset.

### **Counselors as Coolers**

Clark's research pointed to the importance of counselors in all stages of cooling out, from the presentation of alternative choices that are "made to appear not too different from what is given up" to impersonal "confrontation by the facts of poor grades, tough competition, etc." (p. 574). In general, the women in our sample viewed counselors as having roles similar to those Clark described, namely, as responsible for creating obstacles in the path of career and educational goals. However, the women students in our sample seemed to know best and have most contact with high school counselors, not college counselors. And they were not enthusiastic about their high school counseling experience. Over 40 percent had negative reactions to it. In general, they felt their counselors were too busy, too bossy, too fixated on college admissions, or indifferent to them as individuals. As one woman put it, "He was a nothing. I might as well have had the janitor." A few women reported instances of overt discrimination: One woman was not permitted to enroll in industrial arts courses, and another was told that she was too dumb for college work.

With regard to college counselors, both traditional and nontraditional women students tended to report one of three situations: (a) they had not seen a college counselor at all, (b) they saw a counselor only for routine scheduling, or (c) they went to a faculty member instead of a college counselor. An even

clearer pattern emerged among those women who had had negative experiences with high school counselors, particularly those women who were planning nontraditional careers: These women actively avoided counselors. Thus, although our data do not support Clark's contention of the centrality of counseling to the cooling out of women in the two-year colleges, they do support the broader import of counseling as a cooling out function. Moreover, the information concerning counselor avoidance behavior casts suspicion on some of the research on counselor use and effectiveness which concludes that students simply lack information about what is available. Our data suggest that such conclusions are a form of blaming the victim. Clearly, some two-year college women have already encountered counselors who were actively engaged in cooling them out before they reached college. Such women are not interested in renewing the contact. As one woman said, "Who needs them? They'd only get in my way."

### **Educational Institutions as Coolers**

The fourth factor to be considered is the two-year college itself. Although students were not asked questions specifically targeted at their perceptions of their college, some of their comments tend to substantiate Clark's original observations concerning the dual role of the two-year college, that is, as an overt transit to a four-year college and a covert transit to a terminal job.

The women in our sample did not perceive the college in which they were enrolled as an obstacle or a cooler. Quite to the contrary, they viewed the college as the means by which their goals would be accomplished or at least a first step taken. On the other hand, our examination of courses, programs, and enrollments provided striking confirmation of what Clark referred to as the selectivity process: The two-year colleges in our sample

were continuing to perpetuate, if only passively, such sex-stereotyped curriculums as secretarial science and child study while at the same time impassively, and even unconsciously, discouraging women from entering male-dominated majors. Although college personnel often confessed bewilderment that more women were not enrolling in such fields as engineering technology, food processing, or animal science, they had yet to view their role as demanding anything more than unlocking the classroom door. In short, few administrative or counseling personnel in the sample two-year colleges were making aggressive or creative attempts to attract and promote women's entrance into and success in traditionally male fields. Thus, considering the impact of 18 years of sex-role socialization of the sort we have described, the effect of such behavior or nonbehavior on the part of two-year college personnel is clearly to cool women out of anything but female majors and courses of study. Furthermore, it is a process so gentle, so subtle, as to be imperceptible to the students, thereby fulfilling a basic requirement of the cooling out function.

## CONCLUSION

Since Clark first adapted the concept of cooling out for use in higher education, it has been taken up by others who have refined his analysis. In general, however, its validity has not been questioned—nor indeed its appropriateness as a function of two-year colleges. For example, Simon (1967, p. 978) has asserted that cooling out is a necessary function if the individual student is to become a productive member of society. She views the two-year public college as the "logical agency to take over this function" (p. 986). Baird (1971) studied the different effects of cooling out on different kinds of students and has suggested ways in which the concept might be expanded

and more students assisted. Karabel (1972) has taken a somewhat different view. While acknowledging the existence and theoretical necessity of cooling out, he has pointed to ways in which the process has been discriminately applied not only toward individuals but toward groups of people, with the effect that affluent, middle-class students predominate in the transfer programs and poorer, lower-class students end up in the terminal programs. Thus Karabel asserts that the real function of the cooling out process is to perpetuate the existing social stratification system in our society.

The research presented here has brought us to a position similar to Karabel's. While we do not question the utility and even necessity for certain individuals to rechannel their aspirations with the skilled assistance of counselors, as Simon suggests, we do question the utility and necessity of a process that results in women being rechanneled because they are women. If the latter is true—and our data lend it support—then the counselor's task is threefold: (a) to be aware of the cooling out process as it affects women; (b) to avoid using it discriminatorily, that is, unjustly with respect to women; and (c) to strive to heighten women students' awareness of the process so that they can deal with it wherever they encounter it. ■

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## Career Guidance

I guess you're right. I should know  
Just who I really am.  
So I'll think about the things I've done  
And do the best I can.  
(What's it like to be a machinist?)

I guess you're right. I should try  
To clarify my ego.  
So if I'm asked I can tell it right  
And show I really know.  
(How do you become a bank teller?)

I guess you're right. I must now  
Articulate my values.  
So I can find a place for me  
That fits my special views.  
(Do stewardesses make good money?)

I guess you're right. I should try  
To understand my needs.  
So I can set my goals for life  
And know just where it leads.  
(What's an apprentice?)

I guess you're right. I should try  
To plan a good career.  
So when it's time to get a job  
I'll have the answers near.  
(Is it fun to be a model?  
I wonder where I get answers  
about jobs? I wonder if  
anyone around here knows?)

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# a new behavioral emphasis: turning the inside out

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*The student asks the teacher:*

*"How can I change the way I act?"*

*A well-considered answer flows*

*As mentor slowly speaks:*

*"Cherish, my friend, this unencumbered fact:*

*Despite all wells of knowledge*

*From which you may so deeply drink,*

*In every last analysis,*

*You're nothing more than what you think!"*

The image of behaviorists "turning inside out" over anything has long been one that would simply be rejected as not fitting the stereotype of "the way a good behaviorist should respond." In fact, however, this idiom has almost literally been enacted as part of recent innovations in covert conditioning. Within the context of counseling, covert conditioning employs turning "the inside" (i.e., covert reactions such as thinking, feeling, or imagining) "out" to produce desired overt behavior change within clients. Counselors of all persuasions may well view this new behavioral counseling emphasis with great interest, either for its presentation of behaviorism in a new light or for its potential applications to their own work. This article will give readers a chance to indulge both of these possible interests.

*Covert conditioning includes a set of behavior change techniques that incorporate the "inside" aspects of human experience that had long been ignored by behaviorists. Covert behaviors, such as thinking, feeling, and imagining, are essential components of covert conditioning approaches. The author reviews the applications of covert conditioning to the field of counseling. Studies are classified into one of two categories: those using classical conditioning methods or those using operant conditioning methods. The author briefly mentions the counseling implications of covert approaches.*

## A BRIEF HISTORY

Until recently, most learning theorists regarded covert behavior as an unloved stepchild who was better ignored than dealt with. Behaviorists paid attention exclusively to a second ("legitimate") child: overt, motor behavior. Despite its rejection by behavioral psychology, however, covert behavior wandered far and wide and picked up much support and attention. In fact, there has been a long history of therapeutic approaches that emphasize cognitive factors and focus on maladaptive covert self-verbalizations (Ellis 1962). These therapies have viewed behavior change in much the same way as the teacher does in the above poem: "In every last analysis, you're nothing more than what you think!" New behaviors would follow when clients learned to speak to themselves in more appropriate and adaptive manners. Eventually clients would attain self-management as a result of their appropriate self-control of covert behavior.

Very recently it has become apparent that this prodigal child has returned home to an enthusiastic welcome by many of the behavioristic relatives. Increasingly, articles on covert conditioning and self-control are occupying prominent places in journals oriented toward learning theory. The "behavioristic excursion into the lion's den" (Kanfer & Karoly 1972) has begun, and the signs are clear that more and more hunters would like to get in on the safari.

Although there have been performed fascinating research studies empirically supporting the effect of covert (cognitive) behavior in modifying overt behavior (Meichenbaum & Cameron 1974), the focus of this article is on case studies and the counseling applications of covert techniques. Since the article deals only with case studies, a brief note of caution is in order: Very few case studies employ designs allowing for direct assessment of a hypothesized treatment (e.g., an A-B-A

design), and therefore the results obtained are open to an unlimited number of alternative explanations.

Behavioral counselors, in devising covert change strategies, have made two important assumptions: (a) "private" (covert) events are subject to exactly the same rules of acquisition, maintenance, and extinction as are "public" behaviors and (b) the investigation of covert events is possible because such behaviors are observable to a population of one (i.e., to the individual experiencing them). The second of these assumptions places the study of covert approaches clearly within the area of self-management, since no one other than the client can either initiate or identify private events. Under these circumstances, the counselor becomes a consultant and an instigator in self-management programs rather than a direct behavior modifier or a contingency manager.

## COUNSELING APPLICATIONS OF COVERT CONDITIONING

Within the general area of covert conditioning, there are two major categories: classical conditioning approaches and operant conditioning orientations.

### Classical Conditioning

Cautela (1969) cited five self-management techniques that are based on the classical conditioning model: relaxation, desensitization, thought stopping, covert sensitization, and assertive training. Each approach employs the explicit use of incompatible covert actions to reduce the probability of other specific covert behaviors (often such emotions as anxiety). The reduction of these target behaviors, in turn, effects a decrease in overt maladaptive behaviors and an increase in more adaptive, overt responses. This matching of an incompatible behavior with the behavior to be reduced has been termed counterconditioning.

For example, *relaxation* is incompatible

with anxiety. If a client can learn to relax in potentially anxiety-producing situations, the anxiety response can be controlled. The reduction of anxiety in this manner corresponds to the early classical, or respondent, conditioning studies of Pavlov. As the dog in Pavlov's experiments learned to associate a bell with meat powder, a client who practices relaxation in anxiety-provoking situations will learn to associate relaxation with those situations. When the strength of association is greater for the relaxation response than for the anxiety reaction, the anxiety will drop out of the individual's response repertoire. The use of relaxation training to reduce anxiety in everyday life situations has been reported by Goldfried (1973). In his study Goldfried argued that "effective fear reduction follows from an active [covert] attempt on the part of the client to relax himself, rather than [from] simply presenting aversive stimuli when the individual happens to be in a relaxed state" (p. 251). This hypothesis further sup-

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**"Until recently, most learning theorists regarded covert behavior as an unloved stepchild who was better ignored than dealt with."**

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ports the importance of covert behaviors in the change process.

In *desensitization* (Wolpe 1958), a hierarchy of anxiety-provoking events is imagined with concurrent relaxation. With each step in the hierarchy, the client finds that the originally fear-provoking stimuli become less and less immobilizing. Although desensitization is not normally perceived as a self-management technique, Cautela (1969) has directly suggested its use in such a context. Case study illustrations of this form

of covert conditioning for self-modification have shown changes in heterosexual anxiety (D'Zurilla 1969), in test anxiety, and in fear of public speaking (Bugg 1972). Again, by having the ability to think "Relax!" in anxiety situations, the client becomes much more able to achieve the desired relaxation (Goldfried 1973).

The third classical conditioning technique, *thought stopping* (Wolpe 1969), involves the self-introduction of an imagined shout of the command "Stop!" This behavior is incompatible with such covert events as obsessive thoughts, hallucinations, or compulsive behavior. Wisocki (1973), for example, used thought stopping to reduce a client's positive thoughts about heroin use (e.g., "How easy it would be to get some smack" or "It would be really nice to trip out"). The reduction of these thoughts helped reduce this client's overt intake of heroin.

A fourth classical conditioning approach, *covert sensitization* (Cautela 1971a), has generated considerable interest in the use of imagery-induced aversions. In this procedure the client is encouraged to develop a series of cognitive images of varying stages of approach to an undesired target behavior (e.g., cigarette smoking). As the client visualizes each step very clearly, a noxious covert response, usually acute nausea, is slowly introduced into the imagery. As the sequence of imagery comes closer and closer to the undesired target behavior (e.g., taking out the cigarette, beginning to light it), the client also imagines the process of beginning to vomit all over the undesired object (the pack of cigarettes). From a Pavlovian viewpoint, the imagery establishes a learned bond between the aversive stimuli and the undesired target behavior. The client is sensitized to any and all occurrences of that behavior. Since the aversive response (feeling nauseous) is incompatible with the enjoyment of the target be-



havior, the frequency of the undesired behavior begins to decrease rather quickly.

Covert sensitization, normally viewed as fitting the classical respondent conditioning model, might well be the result of operant (where consequences affect learning) conditioning also. For instance, an overweight client might be instructed to practice a nausea scene immediately following thoughts related to eating whipped cream tarts. In effect, the image of vomiting becomes a consequence of the covert thoughts related to the desire to eat fattening foods. If viewed as a consequence of a behavior, this aversive covert image of vomiting can easily be interpreted as self-punishment (an operant technique). Furthermore, in covert sensitization training, the subject is asked at the end of each scene to imagine moving away from the undesired behavior and to begin feeling successively better. For example, the overweight client would imagine walking away from the caloric tarts and would thus be covertly reinforced by the removal of the imagery of nausea. This same client is additionally reinforced by imagining increasingly comfortable sensations, such as washing off the vomit, showering, and changing clothes.

It matters little, however, whether the effectiveness of covert sensitization results from classical or operant conditioning; a client who has been sensitized in this way is much more likely to be able to exercise self-control and modify undesired behavior. Demonstrations of this technique are found abundantly in the literature. Case studies have indicated successful applications of covert sensitization to the reduction of alcoholism (Anant 1967), obesity (Janda & Rimm 1973), smoking (Tooley & Pratt 1967), and drug addiction (Wisocki 1973).

The final classical conditioning treatment for self-management—*assertive training*—has been explained by Wolpe (1958). Assertive behavior is interper-

sonal behavior involving the honest and direct action of standing up for one's rights. In assertive training, the assertion itself is seen as incompatible with anxiety. Although nothing has yet appeared in the self-management literature that deals exclusively with assertive training, recent suggestions concerning the application of assertive training in one-to-one counseling (Rimm & Masters 1974) stimulate ideas for a possible self-directed intervention. In one such model, an individual might develop a hierarchy of anxiety-producing social interactions and, in a progressive manner, covertly role play assertive (but *not* aggressive) responses for each level of the hierarchy. Each covert self-modeling practice would be self-evaluated using specific criteria such as confidence, forcefulness, sincerity, and attention to the feelings of others. Later, audiotaped practice and role-played tryouts would supersede the covert modeling. Eventually the individual would initiate assertive behaviors in the actual problem environments—with much-reduced tension.

In summarizing the classical conditioning applications of covert behavior, the five classical techniques (relaxation, desensitization, thought stopping, covert sensitization, and assertive training) are employed only to reduce or eliminate maladaptive behaviors. None employs a model that would directly make a desired behavior more likely. This additional flexibility is granted through the use of the operant techniques.

### Operant Conditioning

The earliest operant self-management technique was proposed by Homme (1965). Since Homme's approach was operant in nature, he coined a new term in the literature, "coverant," to refer to "covert operants," which, of course, include many of the "private" behaviors already mentioned (e.g., thinking and imagining).

Briefly, Homme's covertant conditioning therapy (CCT) involves systematic attempts to increase certain desired covertants while reducing other undesired covertants. The underlying assumption is that if a person can be led to think differently, that person will act differently. For example, clients who wish to lose weight may very infrequently think of their stomachs bulging over their belt buckles. Such covertants as this are not pleasant and therefore do not often occur. Homme argues that when negative "eating thoughts" are increased substantially, they begin to interfere with such overt behaviors as finishing a third piece of pie or canceling a paddleball match. The solution to a weight loss problem is simple: Attempt to increase the unlikely covertants—thinking about the bulge over the belt buckle—as much as possible. To accomplish this goal, Homme has suggested using the principle developed by Premack (1965): Make performance of a highly probable behavior (which serves as a reward) contingent on the accomplishment of the low probability covertant. Thus, one client, just before taking one of his frequent naps, may force himself to think about being terribly fat; another may arrange to contemplate her dwindling wardrobe before every cup of coffee she drinks. Both would be increasing a covertant of low probability that would tend to be incompatible with certain fat-producing behaviors.

There are several investigations in the literature supporting Homme's technique. Mahoney (1971) has described a CCT approach that made smoking, a very likely behavior, contingent on positive self-thoughts. The rapid increase in covert positive thoughts helped remove the client's depressed and worthless feelings. Johnson (1971) attempted CCT with two clients. In the first case, social dating skills were increased by repeated internal practice of appropriate dating behavior. The covert rehearsal had to

occur before (and was rewarded by) two frequently occurring behaviors: (a) eating and (b) moving a car after a red light. Johnson's second example involved a client who overcame depression by making urination contingent on imagery of success in counseling (e.g., more dates, more social interaction, and better academic performance).

Flannery (1972) employed the response of leisure reading to reward the unlikely occurrence of positive self-

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**"The counselor becomes a consultant and an instigator in self-management programs rather than a direct behavior modifier or a contingency manager."**

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thoughts, and this strategy helped to motivate a drug-dependent college woman to break her chemical habit. In another report, dramatic reductions in two cases of severe depression were accomplished by making behaviors of high frequency (smoking and job-related telephone calls) contingent on positive self-thoughts (Todd 1972).

Cautela (1971a) has developed several additional covert operant procedures. In the first of these, covert positive reinforcement (CPR), Cautela employs imaginal manipulation of both a desired response and certain reinforcing stimuli. A second method, covert negative reinforcement (CNR), involves an aversive image that is removed immediately as the behavior to be increased is imagined. In both CPR and CNR, the behavior pictured is one that the client wishes to increase in frequency. Extensive client practice of the covert linkages is necessary in either form of treatment. With such practice, the covert imagery behaviors begin to generalize to overt



changes in the client's behavioral repertoire.

To illustrate an application, a counselor working with a client who desires to become more socially adept might choose covert positive reinforcement as one possible method of help. The client would decide on a personally rewarding covert behavior, perhaps the image of a favorite fishing spot. In the counselor's office and later at home, the client would practice imagining a difficult task (e.g., introducing himself or herself to strangers) and immediately follow this practice with the rewarding image of a mountain trout stream. This positive imagery would help make the desired social behavior more likely.

In a second instance, the counselor might choose covert negative reinforcement to aid a client in becoming a more comfortable public speaker. The client would select a very aversive covert behavior, such as being immobilized in the path of an army of killer ants. The covert practice would involve the client's vividly imagining the heightening anxiety associated with the tactile sensations of hundreds of crawling ants, and then, just as the anxiety peaks, the client would be asked to shift to a scene in which he or she is comfortably delivering a speech to a large audience. This normally anxiety-arousing public speaking situation would thus begin to be less and less frightening.

Cautela has recently postulated two final covert analogues to traditional operant techniques: covert extinction (Cautela 1971b) and covert modeling (referred to in Flannery 1972). The Flannery article reported a successful case study employing covert modeling (i.e., imagining a model's performances) and other covert techniques with a drug-dependent college dropout. Within his theoretical presentations of CPR and CNR, Cautela (1971a) included case study illustrations of such behavior changes as test anxiety reduction and in-

creased social interaction. Also, Wisocki (1973) presented a case study using a number of Cautela's techniques in helping a client to alter behavior in three major areas: elimination of heroin addiction, improvement of self-concept, and establishment of prosocial behavior.

Although the reports cited above support the use of covert procedures, it must again be stressed that this article deals only with case studies. In many of these studies the employment of more than one technique tends to obscure a direct test of any one method. Additionally, no matter how well planned, the conclusions of a case study are merely speculations, as compared to the results of a carefully designed experimental investigation.

#### USING COVERT CONDITIONING IN COUNSELING

The survey of the case study literature on self-management by covert conditioning yields many ideas on how such procedures can be used as effective tools for self-change. One remaining question, however, concerns the role of the counselor in the client's self-management process. As mentioned earlier, counselors must take new roles as instigators, consultants, and teachers when working with clients in self-control programs.

Specifically, what is altered in taking these new roles? Clearly, *not* the first few counseling sessions. Here, as in all counseling, the client begins to build a meaningful relationship with the counselor and begins to share personal thoughts and feelings about worries and concerns. The departure from counseling tradition occurs when the client has undergone sufficient exploration to be able to select the kinds of changes that are desired. The counselor, who by this time is an important person in the life of the client, can and should begin to instigate and teach methods of covert conditioning and self-change. In explaining these



self-managed procedures, the counselor will be giving the client a way of coping not only with present concerns but with future problems as well.

In covert conditioning, the self-managing client has all that is necessary to promote self-growth in whatever direction is desired. The highs and lows of one's life can be vividly imagined within programmed contingencies to produce relaxation, excitement, behavior change, emotional growth, or cognitive development. Although the covert behaviors of one person cannot be perceived by anyone else, this issue is not critical within a self-managed program. Clients become *their own* observers and evaluators. In a self-managed program, therefore, a counselor cannot take credit for the successful resolution of client problems; but there is no doubt that the counselor can and will share in the joy of clients who have found a way to "heal" themselves.

Behavioral counselors have begun to turn the inside out. Thoughts, feelings, images, and other similar behaviors can and should be employed to aid client change. Counselors must now begin to encourage their clients to help themselves to the full range of growth that is covertly open to them. ■

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# **a model for training workshops and labs**

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*This article describes a model for designing workshops and laboratories for training people in helping skills. The model functions to assist planners in creating learning experiences that maximize retention and transfer to counselors' own work as trainers. The three levels of the model focus on meeting participant needs for acquiring (a) personal awareness and a theory base, (b) individual communication skills, and (c) selected professional competencies. Best results are obtained when workshop leaders follow an integrative principle of design that requires each activity to meet participant needs associated with at least two of the three levels of the model.*

The huge decline in natural material resources that has marked recent years has not been reflected in the area of human resources. There is an overabundance of persons trained in many human relations endeavors. The focus of this article is not on the overabundance of people but on the prolific programs and attempts to train and become trained.

Training is available in virtually every conceivable aspect of human resources and services. Such training is offered by university consultants; institutes of social and behavioral science; centers for learning, growth, and counseling; churches; racial groups; and numerous varieties of large organizations. Hardly a professional person has been missed by the succeeding waves of workshops, clinics, and groups. Some trainers, pushing for the demystification of education, counseling, and the professions, have made special efforts to see that some forms of training are also available to any and all interested parents, clubs, and civic groups.

Right now we find ourselves at a peak in the training boom but with some concern about the quality of the training. Since the advent of sensitivity training two decades ago, critics have borne down on trainers with charges of incompetence, charlatanism, and unwholesome motives. Many training methods have been difficult to defend because they could not be shown to have lasting positive effects.

Rogers (1970) presented a defense of training-produced changes with something less than overwhelming logic and evidence. In a more exhaustive review of the research literature, Campbell and others (1970) concluded that the carry-over from training settings to back-home situations is limited. In some cases, in fact, changes have been in a negative direction.

At best, we can say that many counselors, because of their exposure to training, have become more competent in

performing professional functions and in relating to and understanding others. At worst, the whole phenomenon can be characterized as a gimmicks supermarket at which the well-meaning counselor shops to get a handle on sticky problems. Displayed before such a counselor are the finest and latest innovations in training. Back home the counselor suddenly becomes the trainer. What worked out compellingly in the workshop is flat and awkward when used in the home setting. What clients get is warmed-over goodies.

The general nature of public censure of the training boom is reflected in the writings of many of its advocates. Gibb (1961), Jourard (1964), and Powell (1969) all allude to the suspicion created in the minds of teachers and students back home when recently trained counselors begin to ply their newly acquired techniques.

#### **AN ANALYSIS OF TRAINING APPROACHES**

In preparing and conducting workshops and training sessions for professionals, we have often asked ourselves: Why the difficulty of retention and transfer of training effects to the back-home situation? We looked closely at various training programs and models and asked what the focus and objectives of each appeared to be. From this process we isolated four general training approaches.

##### **The Theory-Base Approach**

Some training programs focus primarily on communicating to participants an understanding of principles or practices that have been derived theoretically, discovered through research or clinical and professional experience. Traditional teacher and counselor courses and most university professional training programs focus on theory. Their objective is to explain and illustrate the relationship among psychological variables and be-

havioral consequences. Normally they advise a trainee and give sound theory but do not provide much opportunity for practice in the training setting.

##### **The Self-Awareness Approach**

The basic focus of sensitivity and encounter groups, as well as many forms of therapy, is self-awareness. The successful laboratory session or encounter group would send its members away with greater awareness of and sensitivity to their own feelings, defenses, modes of learning, and interpersonal styles. Many people have found this reintroduction to themselves a highlighting experience in their lives. Some find the experience of the moment sufficiently rewarding; the research mentioned above, however, suggests that this heightened level of awareness may be short-lived and that noticeable changes in behavior after awareness training may diminish quickly when the trainee returns home from the laboratory setting.

##### **The Communication Skills Approach**

Intensive training in communication skills is seldom conducted outside an organizational context. Because a great deal of time is required to become skilled in interpersonal communication, training becomes a matter of great expense. Most of the extensive communication skills training is conducted in service and professional schools at universities and in private, continuing therapy groups. Such communication skills are: paraphrasing; responding alternatively to feelings, ideas, and attitudes; listening empathically; asserting oneself; expressing emotions; giving and receiving effective feedback; responding to nonverbal behavior; and otherwise expressing, confronting, responding, and helping.

##### **The Competency Acquisition Approach**

Many workshops focus on training people to be more effective in certain limited aspects of their professional



roles. At their best, the competencies presented for consideration and practice are techniques that could be effective if used skillfully. At their worst, they are hurry-up cures that do more for the budget of the trainer than for the practice of the professional. Counseling and interviewing techniques, basic modes of therapy, group leadership, staff de-

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**"The phenomenon of poor retention and transfer to the back-home setting can be explained by four basic weaknesses in human relations training approaches."**

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velopment schemes, in-house research methods, and a growing battery of games, simulations, and structured exercises for teaching principles of individual, group, and organizational behavior are all areas in which competency training is readily available from many legitimate and quasi-legitimate sources.

### **DESIGN WEAKNESSES**

Our analysis led us to believe that the phenomenon of poor retention and transfer to the back-home setting could be explained by four basic weaknesses in human relations training approaches.

First, sufficient effort is not always devoted to introducing members to theory that would give them a sound base for understanding and would enable them to generalize from their behavior in a lab setting to experiences in the back-home situation. In fact, theory is sometimes purposely avoided to make training seem less academic. Furthermore, many trainers are not prepared to impart a sound theory base.

Second, skills training is often conducted at a superficial level, and trainees

do not have the opportunity to acquire self-awareness or an adequate theory base. Further, people who are confused about or insensitive to their own feelings will have trouble utilizing skills training fully until they have an opportunity to understand those feelings.

Third, competency training can be disastrous unless adequate attention has been given to the acquisition of self-awareness, a theory base, and personal communication skills. Workshop participants tend to grab games, simulations, and exercises and run home to try them out on their own peers or students, with disappointing results for everyone. The results of competency training can be dramatically positive when those being trained are sensitive to their own feelings, emotions, response tendencies, and defenses and when they have been equipped to understand the theoretical implications of their behaviors and to communicate clearly with others about themselves. Training is mostly a waste when the counselor has not received a balanced opportunity to acquire self-awareness, a theory base, and individual communication skills.

Finally, we have noticed that the apparent negative effects of prior schooling on professionals have resulted in a tendency on the part of many persons to resist and be skeptical of training efforts. Even worse, many avoid or are unable to make the hard mental effort required for adequate transfer to back-home situations. Schooling has, in other words, left some people ill-prepared as learners. Because of these effects, the laboratory director has a difficult task indeed in helping participants experience new learning as relevant, personal, and satisfying.

### **A MODEL FOR PROFESSIONAL TRAINING**

We concluded from our consideration of training approaches that deliberate in-

tegration of *all* the approaches currently employed was necessary to successful training. While the focus of any one training session must necessarily be limited, its effect will be increased if both trainer and participant are clearly aware of those limitations. The trainer has the responsibility for emphasizing the limitations as well as the applications of the training program.

We suggest the following model as an outline for those who are planning training and as a tool for evaluating any training program. Our belief is that training endeavors will be most successful and have the most lasting effects if they give adequate attention to each of the following three levels of acquisition needs of participants:

- *Level 1: Acquisition of Personal Awareness and a Theory Base*
- *Level 2: Acquisition of Individual Communication Skills*
- *Level 3: Acquisition of Selected Professional Competencies*

#### **Assumptions of the Model**

The assumptions of this training model are that (a) each higher level of acquisition is less general and more carefully defined by the needs of the participant's particular profession, (b) successful acquisition of each level is dependent on successful acquisition of each more general and fundamental level, (c) any professional competency (Level 3) in which one is trained must be accompanied by training in aspects of Levels 1 and 2 related directly to that competency, and (d) retention and transfer to other settings increase as integration of the levels becomes more complete.

Personal awareness and an academic theory base are assumed to be inseparable. Each is, in fact, theory—one internal and the other external to a person. Explanations and hypotheses about how the world works are diluted and mini-

mized unless and until those notions are tested and filtered through explanations, hypotheses, and insights about "how I work." Level 1 is theory: me in the context of our world.

According to the model, a counselor who, for instance, goes away to a three-day workshop on assertive training will return the school district's investment immediately and in years to come if the counselor acquires (a) increased personal awareness and an adequate theory base to understand what assertiveness is and why experiences at school differ from those in the lab, (b) general supporting communication skills through intensive practice, and (c) selected professional competencies—selected by her or him—that will aid in employing the newly acquired awareness and skills in some form of professional behavior rel-

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**"Everything that is said, done, conducted, or included in the workshop agenda must relate directly to at least two of the three levels in the model."**

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evant to the back-home school setting. When each of these conditions is met, it is far more likely that experiences in the back-home setting will reinforce the training results rather than extinguish them.

#### **The Two-for-One Principle**

Our experience indicates that a simple integrative principle can be used to guide the training design. Workshop leaders and trainers can employ this model successfully by following one concise and powerful design rule: Everything that is said, done, conducted, or included in the workshop agenda must relate directly to at least two of the three levels in the model.

In its simplest interpretation, the rule

means that participants receive two for the price of one from everything presented. Let us suppose that the workshop leaders are thinking of using a structured experiential exercise intended to assist the workshop participants in acquiring greater personal awareness and a Level 1 theoretical understanding of their behavior in the group. The leaders would include the exercise only if it also contributed to the acquisition of skills or competencies at Level 2 or Level 3.

When workshop designers take this view, the workshop will integrate participant needs at all levels. Counselors from any workshop designed in this manner, whether it is a two-week residential human relations laboratory or a short afternoon session devoted to values clarification in teaching science, can leave the workshop with an integrated package of experiences, materials, theory, skills, and competencies—which we think has greater possibility for retention and transfer. Generally, if this two-for-one rule is followed in the planning phase, strategies can be found to tie each agenda activity to needs at all three levels.

### THE MODEL APPLIED

We recently conducted a two-day workshop on group process for a group of educators in Prince George, British Columbia, Canada, following the two-level rule while determining the agenda. One activity we included was a simulation exercise on social power and influence as they function in task groups. The exercise was designed to produce self-awareness as each individual confronted feelings of power and powerlessness from time to time during the activity. It was also an experience, shared by all participants, on which the group focused in the development of a theoretical understanding for each participant about how certain group phenomena are related to

power variables. Immediately following the exercise, a debriefing session focused on the meaning generated by the exercise for each person. We also presented theoretical lecturettes. During this debriefing session, leader energy was focused simultaneously on presenting theory to support or qualify participant observations and assisting participants in acquiring individual communication skills. In this instance we determined in advance that the power exercise and accompanying debriefing session would provide the opportunity for participants to acquire self-awareness, expand their theory base, and improve individual communication skills.

### STRATEGIES FOR ENHANCING TRANSFER EFFECTS

It may be helpful to think in terms of three particular kinds of strategies that promote retention and transfer to back-home situations.

#### Debriefing

Debriefing is a metacommunication experience, similar to a conversation about a conversation. Debriefing involves reviewing an experience by discussing how it was conducted, why it was included, and what meaning participants might have obtained from it. Debriefing slows participants down, focuses attention on structure, and reinforces learning. While it seems essential to debrief every activity in any workshop, debriefing need not be restricted to large group conversations. In the workshop we conducted, we varied the debriefing activity to include small group conversations, time alone for reflecting and writing, and large group discussions. In varying the debriefing sessions in this way, we were thinking once again of the training model. A particular debriefing mode was chosen only if it met the minimum two-for-one requirement.



## Reviewing the Design

A second strategy employed in our workshop came at the end of the second day. We conducted an explanatory, large-group discussion session about the design of the workshop and the model presented above. We explained our rationale in determining the agenda and the reasons we included each of the items. The participants left with not only an experiential understanding of each of the activities but also a view of how all elements in the workshop fit together and, more importantly, *that everything fit together*. This strategy also met the two-level requirement for the model.

## Skills Practice

This third strategy for enhancing transfer to the back-home situation has already been mentioned: It is important for each participant to have the opportunity to practice a professional competency that he or she has selected for its relevance to the back-home setting. This strategy will be most helpful if the participants plan for and carry out the application of the selected competency by adhering to the model and then receive feedback from the group. The likelihood of adequate retention and transfer increases as the participant rehearses the competency and gains confidence and insight from supportive feedback. In our workshop, participants designed and conducted group exercises, conducted debriefings, wrote and presented lectures that put group activities into a theoretical framework, and designed and administered evaluation instruments for the workshop.

## EVALUATING TRAINING EXPERIENCES

Most well-designed training workshops include a thorough evaluation component. Participants are often asked to be frank and critical of the experience; leaders can profit from such well-organized feedback. Little attention has been paid, however, to training counselors and other participants in laboratory experiences on how to give constructive feedback to workshop leaders. The model presented here provides a framework in which a counselor can structure evaluation remarks. One can praise a particular exercise for its being scintillating and awareness-producing, for example, and legitimately criticize it for being irrelevant to a back-home situation.

Finally, supervisors and others who are responsible for arranging professional development workshops for counselors and student personnel staffs can effectively communicate specific needs through the outline of this group training model. In so doing, workshop leaders can be held accountable for designing and conducting relevant training experiences for counselors. ■

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# A Counseling Fable:

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Once upon a time, there was a big jungle filled with animals of all types and breeds. The queen of the jungle was a good-natured lioness named Elsa.

Elsa spent many days watching human beings building what she heard them call "a society." In this society, people had jobs. Some people built houses, and some planted seeds that made things grow from the earth. Other people chopped down the trees in the forest and brought back wood to build fires with.

Elsa also noticed that society had people in it whose job it was to make sure the society ran smoothly. They were lawyers who called themselves politicians. It looked like a great idea, but it seemed that whenever anything went wrong, everybody always got mad at the politicians. They didn't seem well liked at all. The queen also saw that the children who grew up in "society" were trained to take on their parents' jobs in order to keep society going. They were given what humans called "an education." Some children didn't enjoy learning the trade of their parents, so when they grew up, they were sent to people who helped them find out what they'd rather do. These people were called counselors. The counselors explored the children's brains by giving them all kinds of tests. Through these tests, the children could find jobs that would make their lives happier.

Elsa liked the idea of society and was upset by all the segregation that existed in the jungle. All the animals seemed to fear that they would be eaten

by everybody else. So Elsa went into town one day and obtained a description of all these tests in order to start setting up a civilization in the jungle in which all the animals could live and work together in harmony.

She found that humans were tested on all different parts of their brains. There were achievement tests, attitude tests, intelligence tests, aptitude tests, interest tests, and personality tests. Elsa decided to administer all these tests to the animals of the jungle in order to find out what animals would be the most productive in the different fields.

The elephants scored high on intelligence tests because an elephant never forgets. So Elsa assigned the elephants the jobs of lawmakers in order to insure a peaceful society in which things would run smoothly. Elephants would always remember the laws they made, so that would eliminate the problem of writing up a constitution, which none of the other animals would ever be able to do.

The monkeys scored best on interest tests because their very curious nature motivates them to know about everything. Most of the monkeys were given jobs as teachers so that they could educate other curious animals. The monkeys also scored high on personality tests, because they're all a bunch of swingers. Many nights it was more than commonplace to see two monkeys walking together, tails interlocked. So Elsa gave them the job of building homes, because they worked so well together and had superior capabilities in lifting

# The Rise and Fall of the Tested Jungle

and placing objects with their hands, feet, and tails.

The tigers, however, had a real problem. Their personality test scores were very low. And no wonder—they couldn't even get along with each other! However, their tremendous level of strength did show up on the aptitude tests. So Elsa gave them the job of chopping down trees so that wood would be available for the new construction sites set up by the monkeys.

The giraffes were tested and rated very high in the area of achievement. Elsa felt that the giraffes, having the longest necks in the forest, could definitely serve to the benefit of society. They were given the jobs of law enforcement officers. They made use of their long necks to watch over the forest and see to it that all the animals were well protected at all times. If any animal was seen attacking its prey, a giraffe simply dropped some sharp object on its head and dragged it down to the elephants' chambers, where appropriate action could be taken toward some form of adequate punishment. Some giraffes also helped the monkeys build houses. They were very helpful in reaching any raw materials that were needed from the treetops.

The highest scorers on aptitude tests were the birds, because they were able to fly as well as walk around, and none of the other animals in the forest had that much ability. So Elsa assigned them the job of flying over to the human society in order to bring back any

word of new developments that would make the jungle society better.

Things worked well for a while. The forest began to look like a society, and the animals really enjoyed this new and exciting idea. But soon problems began to arise. The elephants, despite their high scores on intelligence tests, really lacked the interest and motivation to run society well. They were basically fat and lazy and seemed perfectly content to just lug their big trunks around all day. They started goofing off on the job, and the giraffes got really angry. If the elephants didn't care to carry through with the laws, the giraffes weren't going to break their necks finding offenders. Pretty soon the crime rate got high. Other animals started ransacking the homes of their prey and tearing them down. The monkeys got really disgusted when they saw all their hard work destroyed. The birds didn't want to participate because civilization was on the ground and nothing was being done for their nests in the trees. The tigers got tired of chopping wood for the monkeys because they really didn't care how the other animals lived, since they didn't like anyone anyway.

So Elsa watched her beautiful society fall like a bunch of dominoes. She lay down and was very depressed. Elsa had utilized the tools of man to create a society that would obliterate the fear and chaos of jungle life, yet little did she know that she had almost succeeded in reproducing the biggest jungle of all. ■



# *In the Field*

*Reports of programs, practices, or techniques*

## Photo Counseling

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Counselors at all levels are perpetually seeking new and more effective ways of establishing and maintaining therapeutic contact with their clients. Quite often such techniques are discovered by chance, and they are frequently so simple and obvious that one wonders why they were not thought of before. The discovery of the use of family photographs in counseling is one such instance of good fortune.

A few years ago, in my capacity as counseling psychologist at the St. Vincent Hospital Community Mental Health Center in Erie, Pennsylvania, I had occasion to work with an adolescent girl who was quite resistant to the counseling interchange. Week after week we spent time together in laborious sessions characterized by long periods of uneasy silence. My growing convictions were that the contact would be short-lived and that little therapeutic gain would be realized. Concurrently, however, I had occasion to work with a young man who wanted to interact and who one day happened to have with him some family snapshots. In our sharing these photos, I found that the relationship took on a new, highly personal dimension; I was allowed a more intimate association than before. I was impressed with the new communication medium and decided to

try this therapeutic technique with the reticent young lady.

In the following weeks, during which time I had occasion to view stacks of her intimate memorabilia, the quality of our interchange was dramatically altered. I knew about the trips to Niagara Falls and the family reunion and the disastrous picnic at Presque Isle Park. I had a "picture" of various family members and friends, and I had visited, in a sense, the young lady's home and her more common visiting places. In effect, I had shared with her some very significant experiences in her extratherapeutic life space. That was the beginning.

In the months that followed, I tried the technique with other clients and encouraged my colleagues at the clinic to do likewise. What we discovered in most instances was that not only did the photographs provide a wealth of incidental information about our clients but also the clients came to feel more open in discussing the significant others and the significant experiences in their lives. We had been permitted access to otherwise unknown facets of a client's reality.

### THE VALUE OF PHOTOGRAPHS

First, photographs typically provide detailed information about the physical en-

vironment in which a client lives. The counselor is in a position to assess and clarify actual and potential sources of stress and strength related to living conditions, financial pressures, and the family's attitudes about its environmental status. Particularly with children, who may not grasp the significance of many environmental features, the photographs can reveal critical information.

Second, family interaction patterns are revealed or suggested in many photos. Considering who spends time with whom doing what and the variations in such interactions is fruitful for the investigation of conflicts and alliances. The degree of intrafamily involvement in vacations, recreational activities, and the like can suggest cohesiveness and possible communication levels. Exploring the extent of involvement of extended family members may uncover additional sources of conflict and strength.

Third, broader social involvements on a neighborhood and community level may become known or may be naturally investigated. For children, and adolescents in particular, the involvement (or lack of it) of peers in family activities may suggest the extent to which the family opens itself to and approves of existing friendship patterns. A counselor's questions about such photos and the occasions for taking them typically become routine and nonthreatening to most clients.

Finally, considerable historical information in personal, family, and social areas can be gained from less recent photographs. Use of this information in then-and-now comparisons, for example, has been shown to reveal significant events that have contributed to or detracted from ongoing adjustment states.

## USES IN COUNSELING

Having explored the clinical usefulness of photographs, I have found that they

may have utility in any and all phases of counseling. Three of these uses are described below.

First, the pictures can be used to establish and build rapport. Most clients have been found to attend with interest when the counselor is viewing their personal photographs. A counselor's expressing favorable reactions conveys acceptance and understanding, and clients then tend to develop trust and openness. Such comments as "You look good in this one" and "You seem happy" bring clients to a more spontaneous and personal level. In the counseling situation, where clients are presenting themselves as people who have problems and who are struggling with the means of communicating their concerns, the photographs provide a starting point in a less threatening structure. The relevance of this approach is often recognized by the psychologist who, at the outset, asks clients to draw pictures or to focus on other less direct areas. In addition, clients who have been asked for reactions to the use of photos have frequently indicated their feeling that the counselor got closer more quickly by a meaningful sharing of the clients' real situations. In effect, clients suggest that the counselor comes to know them better and more rapidly by allowing them to relax and be themselves.

Second, diagnosis, whether formal or informal, involves the accumulation and integration of information about the client so that the therapeutic process can proceed. The more traditional means of diagnosis involve primarily verbal interchange between counselor and client and are initially directed toward establishing a foundation for communication and subsequent therapy. The use of photographs has been found to be an important adjunct to this process in several ways: (a) pictures can be used to verify or alter the client's version of problematic concerns; (b) specific photos can be used to lead into investigations of highly sensitive and perhaps well-

defended areas; (c) they can be used in a psychometric way by, for example, asking the client to write captions for them or tell stories about them; and (d) detailed information about self-perceptions can be gained by asking the client to select "liked" and "disliked" photos and to elaborate on such selections.

A third area of usefulness is the progressive use of photos over several sessions as a means of assessing gains, resistance, and therapeutic changes of all types, leading to alterations in the basic counseling emphasis. Such comments as "In this picture you seem to be keeping distance between yourself and your oldest daughter; do you still find it difficult to relate to her?" can focus the client's attention on a potential source of stress and lead to an increased understanding of the nature of the conflict and its circumstances. The need for increased self-expression or more directed information-giving may be evaluated and acted on.

## LIMITATIONS

I have used photographs in a wide variety of counseling situations, and most of these efforts have proven to be at least marginally productive. However, certain limitations have become apparent with reference to client types, cost factors, photo types, and client selectivity.

In general, photo counseling appears to have good utility with passive-resistant clients, with children (due to their limited verbal ability), and with most females. The least responsive group appears to be adult males, particularly those who do not have strong motivation for counseling. Corresponding to this finding, it appears that client responsiveness to the approach increases proportionately with the client's dependency traits. Socioeconomic status and similar factors do not appear to have a

strong bearing except as they are related to the limitations described below.

A primary problem sometimes encountered with individuals at low socioeconomic levels is the limited number of pictures available to them and the prohibitive expense involved in accumulating contemporary photos. Individuals who are better situated financially are less restricted; the majority of middle-class clients have available to them sufficient numbers of family photos, although the steady accumulation of current photos may still be a problem.

Unless some family member has an abiding interest in photography, the typical snapshots accumulated are of the special occasion variety. Snapshots of mealtimes, family disputes, shopping trips, and the like are rare. To the extent that this is true, the available photographs are not usually characteristic representations of ongoing family life. While this is a significant limitation, I have found that many photos do contain sufficient variety in family and extra-family content to allow for the uses outlined above.

Instituting photo counseling procedures involves the counselor's requesting that the client bring in a random selection of available photographs. Although the counselor emphasizes random selection, clients often select photos that present a favorable self-image. While this may be valuable in elucidating the client's ideal self, it can lead to some distortion in the evaluation process. In such instances, clients are asked to bring in more photos over a greater number of sessions, including the bad as well as the good.

## SOME EXAMPLES

Photo counseling techniques have been used with many clients of all ages in the mental health, public school, and college settings. A few examples of the general



usefulness of these techniques in all phases of counseling are provided below.

Susan was a fifteen-year-old high school student who had been referred for counseling due to her periodic depression, aggressive outbursts, and several alleged acts of vandalism. She did not want to come for counseling, and she appeared sullen and passively aggressive. Like other adolescents, Susan was very sensitive about her personal appearance, although she was quite attractive and generally well groomed. She brought in many photos at my request, even though she feigned indifference to the whole affair. Susan and I sat opposite one another during the photo counseling sessions. As I viewed the pictures, I gave frequent indications of amusement, wonderment, curiosity, and approval. Each time I reacted, Susan looked up and leaned forward slightly so as to see which photo I was looking at. Her curiosity had been aroused, and she apparently wanted some feedback about herself. When she finally asked which one I was looking at, I responded warmly and encouraged her to move more toward the side of the desk, and I did likewise. The ice had been broken, and Susan began to tell me about herself.

Joey was a pupil in the primary EMR classes at a local school. He had been very withdrawn in the classroom and was performing far below what he was thought capable of. He appeared frightened, and his teacher was concerned about the possibility of emotional disturbance. Joey's mother brought in several photographs that revealed a rather deprived home setting. After a few brief and strongly supportive sessions, the boy began to correct my obvious misinterpretations of what was taking place in the pictures. The only photos to which he failed to respond productively were those including his father. Although Joey's mother was herself a rather frightened and non-communicative person and had not

spoken of it before, when she was questioned about the father-son relationship, she revealed that Joey's father often abused Joey and other members of the family, including herself.

Barb was a twenty-year-old secretary who had been in a serious automobile accident several months prior to counseling. She had suffered severe facial cuts, which had necessitated plastic surgery. She was depressed about her physical appearance and tended to exaggerate the degree of physical change. Then-and-now comparisons in photo counseling enabled her to accept the changes, which were in fact relatively minor.

Tom was a twenty-seven-year-old graduate student nearing the completion of his degree. He complained of not really knowing what he wanted and being fearful of the "real world." He claimed to reject his parents' life style and general value system, and it appeared that he was becoming what he had so long resisted. Older family photographs emphasized the good times, and in viewing them Tom began to remember the values of a stable home life.

Ellen was approaching middle age. She had four children and was still very restricted by the demands of family life. She spoke of depression and disillusionment regarding what she had failed to do with her life. She was encouraged to take pictures of her ongoing activities and to bring in, along with these photos, some of her creative projects. Ellen's increased involvement and enthusiasm were documented and made very apparent to her as her more positive attitudes took shape.

## FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Early indications of the usefulness of photo counseling are promising, and continued investigation is desirable. Beyond what has already been done, future directions include systematizing the

various levels of use, applying the approach within areas of exceptionality, investigating extracounseling situations (such as the classroom), and encouraging clients to keep photographic records of positive and negative changes. As with so

many other variations in counseling techniques, photo counseling affords a greater degree of interpersonal involvement in situations calling for heightened self-awareness and communication. ■

## Affective Education through Role Playing: The Feelings Class

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Psychological education has become an important and integral part of the school counselor's functioning. This is evidenced by special issues of professional counseling journals (Carroll 1973, 1974; Ivey & Alschuler 1973) devoted to psychological education and the affective development of children. School counselors may effectively contribute to the psychological education of children by helping teachers plan and implement affective guidance activities in the classroom. One activity especially well suited to meeting these needs is the "feelings class."

Feelings classes were introduced by Faust (1968) and have been more recently described by Wittmer and Myrick (1974). These activities are intended to be counselor-initiated and carried on through the cooperation of the counselor and the classroom teacher. The goal of the feelings class is to help children learn how their behaviors and feelings are related. In addition, children

may learn how these behaviors and feelings affect the behaviors and feelings of others. The explicit objectives of feelings classes are to (a) increase students' awareness of personal feelings, (b) enhance their understanding of the different types of feelings that are experienced by themselves and others, (c) increase their awareness of the fact that feelings are neither bad nor ugly, and (d) enhance their capacity to express feelings and emotions in productive ways. The goals and objectives may be efficiently achieved through structured (e.g., role-playing) exercises carried on within classes.

Feelings classes may be integrated into classroom activities through either of two methods. One method is to have regularly scheduled sessions, which are usually 20 to 30 minutes long and are carried out on a regular schedule (e.g., every other day). The other method emphasizes "timely teaching." The teacher identifies a particular incident that has

occurred recently in the classroom and, with the counselor's aid, plans a feelings class to explore the children's feelings and behaviors related to the incident. The length of this type of feelings class may vary according to the complexity of the situation or the children's desire to continue the experience.

### **AN ILLUSTRATION OF "TIMELY TEACHING"**

The following paragraphs describe a counselor-initiated role-playing approach to the feelings class and a method for evaluating the effectiveness of the activity. This activity was not part of a regularly scheduled program but was implemented because a problem situation had arisen. A fifth-grade teacher, during a counselor-teacher consultation, had expressed concerns about classroom discipline, teacher-student relationships, and student-student relationships. The teacher's major concerns were the lack of communication and the lack of positive relationships among students. The counselor suggested using a feelings class as an aid to developing more positive interpersonal relationships in the classroom, and the teacher agreed.

#### **Planning the Feelings Class**

The counselor and the teacher identified three student behaviors that concerned the teacher the most: name calling, being bossy, and using threats of either verbal or physical abuse. The counselor then prepared four role-playing situations to be used in the class:

1. Two boys are playing marbles on the playground. A third boy walks up to the game to see what is happening. He asks, "Can I play?" The other boys jointly respond, "Oh, go away. You're too stupid to play with us."

2. Two boys are playing catch on the playground. A girl walks over to them and says, "The teacher said you're not supposed to play today." One boy re-

sponds, "Get away, fatso." The other boy says, "Yeah, get away, you big whale."

3. A boy and a girl are arguing in a corner of a classroom. The girl says, "You can't do anything right. You always make mistakes. You'd better do it my way. Sit down and I'll show you how." The boy says, "You're not my boss. You always think you're so smart and try to tell everybody what to do."

4. Two girls are jumping rope on the playground. One girl stops and says, "I think I'll go play hopscotch with Mary." The other girl says angrily, "If you go play with her, then I won't be your friend. And I'll tell Betty not to like you too."

#### **Implementing the Plan**

After the teacher introduced the counselor to the students, the counselor explained that they were going to have a feelings class using four role-playing activities. A feelings class was described as an opportunity for students in a class to discuss their feelings with one another and to take a look at some of their own behaviors. Role playing was described as a type of pretending in which students acted out their own real life situations.

Three boys volunteered for the first role-playing situation, and they were taken out of the classroom so that the counselor could explain the situation to them. Each boy was assigned a role. Meanwhile, the teacher was instructing the other students to consider the entire situation presented and to examine each player's role.

Reentering with the volunteers, the counselor set the stage for the exercise by saying, "Let's pretend that you are having recess on the playground and happen to be near a marbles game. You are able to see and hear everything." The first role-playing situation lasted about five minutes. The students were then instructed to imagine that they were in the position of the boy who wanted to join the game, and they were asked to write



down how they would feel and what they would do. Students then orally shared their written responses with the class.

In facilitating the discussion, the counselor clarified children's feelings. He also helped them identify similarities and differences in classmates' feelings and potential behaviors. Some of the children felt that the best solution would be getting into a fight. Others wanted to call names and fight. One child suggested that they ignore the other children and play elsewhere. Another suggested that they ignore the behavior but "get even" later. The counselor used these examples to facilitate a discussion about other alternative behaviors in the situation.

Responsibility and consequences for behavior were also explored. The counselor used such statements and questions as "Any of these alternatives might make you feel better for a while. What might happen to you as a result of fighting with the boys? What would be the result if you ignored them or tried to talk with them? Who is responsible for the actions that you decide to take?" Children responded that they would "get in trouble," "win the fight," "get beat up," "not have anything happen," and "make up." Most students agreed that the choice and responsibility for their behavior was their own.

The counselor continued the discussion by asking, "What were the boys who were playing marbles thinking and feeling?" This discussion continued until each child who felt like talking had been allowed to do so. Written responses to the role-playing activities were then collected by the counselor.

The second and third role-playing situations immediately followed the first, again with a class discussion after each. Students were not asked for written responses to these two situations. Following the fourth role-playing presentation, the counselor again asked students to write down how they would feel and what they would do if they were in the first girl's place. Responses were again

collected, and the feelings class terminated. The data collected served as pre- and post-assessment measures.

The counselor and the teacher analyzed the written responses from all the different situations. They developed five behavior categories that the students might have used in response to the role-playing situations: fighting, using verbal abuse, ignoring, seeking adult assistance, and talking it out. Responses from the first exercise were then placed into appropriate categories, and written responses from the fourth exercise were then similarly classified. Next, they constructed a behavior response table that showed the differences in responses (see Table 1).

## **FOLLOW-UP**

Since it was evident that there was a shift in the types of written responses between the first and fourth exercise, a follow-up feelings class was conducted one week later. The counselor met with the class and described the following situation. Three girls are getting together to plan a party. A fourth girl walks up and asks, "What are you doing?" One of the girls responds, "What does it look like, stupid?" Another says, "Planning a party." The third girl says, "Yeah, and you're not invited." The counselor then asked the students to write down what they would do if they were the girl who had walked up to the other three. A class discussion similar to those used for the previous role-playing experiences followed. The written responses were later collected and also categorized (see Table 1). The counselor terminated this feelings class by asking the teacher and the children to discuss the activities.

## **Comparison of Responses**

Table 1 shows the frequency of written behavior responses. A discrepancy between the total number of responses collected and classified for the first and

TABLE 1

Categorized Written Behavior Responses to Role-Played Situations

| Role-Playing Sequence | Fighting | Using Verbal Abuse | Ignoring | Seeking Adult Assistance | Talking It Out |
|-----------------------|----------|--------------------|----------|--------------------------|----------------|
| First                 | 8        | 9                  | 10       | 3                        | 1              |
| Fourth                | 0        | 3                  | 11       | 1                        | 11             |
| Follow-Up             | 1        | 7                  | 9        | 2                        | 6              |

fourth situations exists because three students left the class early to attend special education programs. Four children were absent from school during the follow-ups.

There is a shift in the types of responses children would have used between the first and fourth role-playing activities. Assuming that "Seeking Adult Assistance" and "Talking It Out" are more socially effective behaviors, the shift in response indicates that the feelings classes influenced children toward more positive methods of interaction. In addition, it appears that the shift to these two categories would reduce disruptive classroom behaviors. In a similar manner, a reduction in responses occurred in the category "Fighting." It appears that the feelings classes successfully reduced the potential for physical aggression among the children. A consistently high category was "Ignoring." While ignoring behaviors are not the most facilitative for establishing positive interpersonal relationships, they do have the advantage of preventing potentially harmful or dangerous interactions. The change in selected behavior responses carried over a period of one week, as evidenced in the follow-up experience.

### Teacher and Pupil Evaluation

The teacher's reactions to the feelings classes were positive in regard to the class as a whole and the individual students. She related that there was an observable change in the interpersonal atmosphere in the class. She stated, for example,

"The class appears to be getting along better. They are helping each other much more and seem more considerate." Other teacher comments suggested that positive changes had occurred with particular individuals. "Kitty is more tolerant of other people's mistakes. Mike and Larry haven't fought once today."

Student reactions to the feelings classes were also highly positive. Many children said that for the first time they thought about their own and other children's feelings. Other children said they enjoyed the exercises because they made them think about something different. For example, one boy said, "I know that when I pick on Betty it bothers her, but I didn't know it upset other kids and the teacher too." Some children asked the counselor to return to the class and do more of the same types of role-playing activities. Still other students suggested to the teacher that they develop their own situations and role play them for the class in a similar manner.

Both the teacher and the counselor agreed to continue working together and to plan more classroom activities directed toward affective education. The teacher also told the counselor that she had discussed the feelings classes with other teachers in the school and that they had expressed interest in having similar kinds of experiences for their classes.

### CONCLUSION

This role-playing approach to affective education in the classroom appeared to

help students understand themselves and their classmates better. It may be that a continuing series of feelings classes would produce a more lasting effect. One way for counselors to use their time and unique skills optimally is through the planning and implementation of activities in affective or psychological education. ■

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## Silent Dancers

Cautiously  
searching for words, she is like a child  
trying to trace another's footprints,  
while I  
in shadow-step must wait  
her lead.

Together  
we shall move through the poses  
seeking  
the next foothold,  
silhouettes bound together  
in a formless knowing  
that evades the shapes of sound.

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# Research in Counseling

Richard W. Warner, Jr., Column Editor

*This column is based on the belief that research can provide meaningful data to the practicing counselor. While individual studies may not provide sufficient data on which to act, a combination of separate research efforts or a large-scale, long-term research project does have the possibility of providing sufficient data. This column will undertake to provide that data by either reviewing the current research in a specific area or examining the results from a long-term project. The emphasis will be on implications for the counselor, so there will be little if any information on research design or statistical procedures. Readers desiring more detail about a particular study should write directly to the original author(s). Readers who desire to have the results of their research and/or innovative approaches considered for review in this column should send the material to Richard W. Warner, Jr., Counselor Education, 2054 Haley Center, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama 36830.*

## Personal Education

SANFORD COLLEY, Associate Professor of Education, University of Montevallo, Montevallo, Alabama

During the last decade, educators at all levels have developed a renewed interest in the social and emotional development of young people. This movement, variously described as confluent education (Brown 1971), humanistic education (Patterson 1973; Weinstein & Fantini 1970; Zahorik & Brubaker 1972), and process education (Borton 1970), embraces a philosophy of education that stresses the facilitation of both affective and cognitive development. This renewed interest in the personal development of young people presents both a unique challenge and an opportunity for counselors. Traditionally, counselors have assumed responsibility for personal development and teachers for intellectual development, but it has become increasingly clear that personal development is not the exclusive domain of counselors. Counselors simply cannot do the job alone, but they are in an excellent position to provide leadership to parents, teachers, and other educators who are concerned

about developing ways of improving the personal development of young people.

In line with this belief, procedures designed to facilitate personal growth and to involve counselors as well as teachers have been developed and have been referred to as affective education (Castillo 1974), psychological education (Ivey & Alschuler 1973), and emotional education. These programs, including over 350 major approaches and at least 3,000 specific techniques and exercises (Weinstein & Fantini 1970), are designed to facilitate the development of some or all of the following skills in young people:

- *Intrapersonal Development*, including a greater awareness of self, environment, and others; the clarification of values; the development of self-concept; the development of a sense of responsibility.
- *Interpersonal Skills*, including the ability to listen effectively; appropriate self-disclosure; communication; responding with empathy.

warmth, and genuineness; assertiveness; helping.

• *Other Competencies*, including decision-making skills; values clarification skills; problem-solving skills.

Because counselors are looked to for leadership in this area, this review was undertaken in an attempt to provide information that might be useful in planning programs. For the purpose of this review, programs and techniques designed to facilitate the above goals will be referred to collectively as "personal education," even though some of the outcomes (e.g., problem-solving) of these programs might be termed cognitive.

While the literature is replete with discussions of the rationale for personal education, examinations of the philosophical presuppositions underlying such programs, and suggestions for implementation (the P&G JOURNAL devoted an entire issue to the subject in 1973), comparatively little research has been reported. Further, when judged in terms of traditional criteria, much of what has been reported has failed to demonstrate the efficacy of personal education. This review is limited to those investigations in the area of personal education that fall into two categories: those studies assessing *direct* attempts to facilitate student development through students' participation in classroom activities and programs, and those studies assessing *indirect* attempts to facilitate student development through training school personnel in affective skills.

#### **DIRECT ATTEMPTS TO FACILITATE STUDENT DEVELOPMENT**

It is ironic that the area of affective education receiving the most attention—techniques and procedures for use with students—has been the most neglected in the research literature. Although there have been numerous positive reports from teachers who have used programs of affective education developed by school systems, there have been reported comparatively few experimental studies that yield objective data in support of such programs.

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from affective education programs. Van Koughnett and Smith (1969) reported significant differences between the experimental and control groups in a program designed to enhance the self-concept of black students in the Pontiac, Michigan, school system. Ojemann (1967), in a study with 400 elementary students, reported significant gains in general affective development. In trying to determine the most effective mode for teaching a unit on drug education, Smith (1974) utilized three groups: an affective group, a didactic group, and a control group that focused on non-drug-related problems. An instrument was used to measure both cognitive and affective gains; the affective group showed significant gains in both the cognitive and affective areas.

*Packaged Programs.* Several packaged programs of affective education have been developed during recent years, among them the American Guidance Services' DUSO Program (Dinkmeyer 1970), the Science Research Associates' Self-Development Program (Anderson, Lang & Scott 1970), and the Human Development Training Institute's series on Methods in Human Development (commonly known as the "magic circle" series). Although the subjective reports from teachers using programs such as these are generally favorable (Bessell & Palomares 1970; Dinkmeyer 1973; Morgan 1971), there has been a dearth of objective research yielding empirical data in support of these programs. Using the DUSO materials with first, second, and third grade students, Koval (1972) found a greater feeling of belonging and greater self-reliance in student participants in all three grades, a greater sense of personal freedom among first grade participants, and no change in the sense of worth among student participants in any of the grades. Three experimental programs evaluated the effects of the Human Development program. Montgomery (1971) employed the awareness portion of the program. He reported that, out of sixteen variables, students showed significant improvement on only the variables of self-awareness and sensitivity to others. McGee (1972), who used the program with preschoolers, found a significant increase in IQ scores but not in social or personal adjustment. Because IQ scores are rather flexible at this age level, these results must be viewed with caution.

Sweaney (1974), who used the program with first graders, found, in spite of overwhelmingly positive subjective reactions from students and teachers, no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the affective variables.

The preceding material indicates that, at best, the empirical evidence in support of affective programs designed for direct impact on students is mixed. This evidence need not discourage the use of direct procedures, but counselors are encouraged to help those using these programs to better define the objectives of the program. My feeling is that these programs are often viewed as a panacea for "affective development" and that the objectives of the program are either ill defined or so global that any evaluation is very difficult.

#### INDIRECT ATTEMPTS TO FACILITATE STUDENT DEVELOPMENT

Of the goals included in the definition of personal education given at the beginning of this review, none has been as thoroughly researched as the various dimensions of interpersonal functioning in the classroom and the effect of that functioning on student development. Until the last decade much of that research was fruitless. In spite of an estimated 2,000 studies (Howsman 1963), little was known about which teacher characteristics facilitated personal growth in students. In recent years, however, what is now generally accepted as the "Carkhuff model" has provided a solid base from which to proceed to empirical investigations.

Extensive reviews of research by Carkhuff (1969) and Gazda (1973) support the efficacy of that model of human relations training with counselors and teachers, respectively. An exhaustive treatment of research with counselors is not practical in this review, but an examination of experimental studies with teachers reveals that students benefit in a variety of ways when the teachers who work with them receive human relations training. Experimental studies demonstrating a positive relationship between teacher training and student development include those by Christensen (1960), who investigated the effect of teacher warmth on student achievement; Aspy (1969), the effect of teachers possessing good interpersonal skills on student

achievement; Aspy and Hadlock (1967), the effect of the level of teacher interpersonal functioning on student performance; Stoffer (1970), the effect of teacher empathy and regard on elementary student behavior and achievement; Kratochvil, Carkhuff, and Berenson (1969), the effects of teacher-provided facilitative conditions on student physical, emotional, and intellectual functioning; and Hefele (1971), the effect of human relations training on student achievement. All these investigations have demonstrated that programs designed to improve teacher interpersonal functioning do have a positive indirect impact on students. Certainly counselors should be encouraged by these findings to try to provide the leadership for the implementation of similar programs in their own educational settings.

### IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

1. The empirical data from investigations of affective education and affective techniques that focus directly on students do not consistently support their efficacy. However, the enthusiastic subjective evaluations of such programs from practitioners is significant. While those programs and approaches need further study, counselors should remain open in their consideration of the effectiveness of affective education in preventing maladjustment as well as in facilitating the development of human potential. In considering such programs, counselors need to help school and college personnel carefully define the objectives of the program. I believe that many programs are started without careful preplanning; and careful preplanning is a must.

A second reason for mixed results being found with programs designed to have a direct impact on students may well be that too often such programs are treated as added-on programs rather than being integrated into the total school program. They are taught as math might be taught rather than considered an integral part of the total educational environment.

2. Such tentativeness is not necessary with models of training teachers in affective and interpersonal skills. In these two areas the findings are clear, the implications unmistakable. Such training has been shown to be effective with a wide range of populations in a

wide variety of settings. Of particular interest to counselors who desire to get involved in this area should be the training manual developed by Gazda and his associates, *Human Relations Development: A Manual for Educators* (1973).

3. This review raises some very basic questions with regard to research in counseling, especially with those affective outcomes that seem to resist quantification. The discrepancy between the overwhelmingly positive subjective reports of affective programs and the somewhat tenuous empirical data gained from the more objective research studies included in this review cannot be ignored. That discrepancy may reflect the ineffectiveness of direct programs of affective education, or it may reflect the inadequacy of affective research techniques. While there have been developed some techniques for assessing affective outcomes of education, including self-response questionnaires, Q sorts, ratings, observations by others, and the Semantic Differential, most are of questionable adequacy in measuring the broad range of affective development.

That inadequacy poses a dilemma for the counseling profession. On the one hand, we are being pressed to develop only those educational programs that can be demonstrated to be effective in terms of traditional criteria. However, should the profession accept a traditional researchable model of people, it may run the risk of developing programs that limit, and quite possibly distort, the potentials within individuals. In the words of Bruner (1956, p. 463), "It is patent that the view one takes of man affects profoundly one's standard of the humanly possible." Echoing Bruner, Sanford (1970, p. x) warned that behavioral scientists may be discovering truths about a model of people fashioned according to research needs—rather than about people themselves. He asked, "To what extent do our very methods of studying man imply views on the nature and possibilities of man?"

What is needed is a careful consideration of the methodological problems involved in the study of affective outcomes, the limitations of traditional research designs, and the possibilities of new designs and evaluative instruments. [Note from the column editor: More attention will be paid to this very problem in future columns.]



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# Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

*Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006.*

**If You Don't Know Where You're Going, You'll Probably End Up Somewhere Else** by David P. Campbell. Argus Communications, 7440 Natchez Ave., Niles, Illinois 60648. 1974. 144 pp. \$1.95 paperback.

If ye ken Campbell, you know he's something else, and this little book bears out his idiosyncratic style. A guide to give direction and dimension to vocational planning, it sets up guideposts on "the road to somewhere" and flashes occasional caution signals. A substantive assist in a serious area, it shows a light touch that attracts added reader attention. The Campbell flavor is blended with Hollandaize, the Holland typology serving as an occupational framework.

**Questions and Answers about Getting into College** by Abraham H. Lass. Simon & Schuster, Inc., 630 Fifth Ave., New York 10020. 1974. 495 pp. \$1.95 paperback.

This time-tested fourth edition of the 1962 original is so packed with detailed, comprehensive information that one can scarcely find a lack in a Lass book. His 28 chapters cover everything from "Why Go to College?" to "What Will College Be Like?" Between he discusses such topics as myths about college, how to study and take tests, how to choose a college and be chosen, and how to choose a career. Several chapters deal with minority groups. The publisher does not help Lass by putting on the back cover blurbs from two people listed in the acknowledgments.

**Career Exploration Workshop for Women** by Vivian McCoy and Phyllis Cassell. Division of Continuing Education, University of Kansas, Lawrence 66045. 1974. **Participant's Personal Portfolio**, 102 pp., \$3.50 paperback. **Leader's Manual**, 132 pp., \$10.00 paperback.

Designed for six three-hour sessions, these 8½ × 11 manuals contain a wealth of perti-

nent materials carefully selected from a variety of sources and arranged in a developmental sequence. The *Leader's Manual* includes everything in the participant's, plus "suggested procedures and remarks appropriate for the various parts of the workshop sessions." Substantively superior, the contents could do without "with it" titles such as "You've Come a Long Way, Baby!" and "Putting It All Together." Some of the contents requires recurrent updating.

**Beyond Customs: An Educator's Journey** by Charity James. Agathon Press, Inc., 150 Fifth Ave., New York 10011. 1974. 240 pp. \$8.95.

Her title's word play reflects the creative urge of this literate, irrepressible, but highly responsible educator, who has plied her trade on both sides of the Atlantic. Widely published, she brings together here some previously unpublished pieces as well. She tells how schools have failed to meet students' needs, how innovative programs have tried to succeed, and how changes in curriculum and method might be accomplished. Scholarly, poetic, and earthy, her middle name could be Creativity.

**Fundamentals of Organizational Behavior: An Applied Perspective** by Andrew J. DuBrin. Pergamon Press, Inc., Maxwell House, Fairview Park, Elmsford, New York 10523. 1974. 487 pp. \$12.50 hardbound, \$8.00 paperback.

Minimally concerned with management as such, this text focuses on professionals, middle managers, and other "knowledge workers." Dealing in three major sections with individuals, small groups, and organizations, it touches on such topics as motivation to work, stresses and strains, political maneuvering, leadership styles, communication and conflict, organizational climate, and change at every level. Each of the 14 chapters pro-

vides questions and "guidelines for action." DuBrin achieves his intent to be both rigorous and pragmatic.

**Handbook on the Private Practice of Social Work** by the Council on Private Practice, Division of Practice and Knowledge. National Association of Social Workers, 1425 H St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005. 1974. 63 pp. \$5.00 paperback.

A revision of the 1967 *Handbook*, this 8½ × 11 guide to "ethical and good practice" is not intended as "a definitive statement" and "does not constitute official policy of NASW..." This disclaimer seems warranted by the limited depth of the contents. Since large numbers of social workers have entered private practice, more than this small effort is needed to help them hew to the strait and narrow, in view of the temptations that beset them (as with any counselor/therapist). A greater proportion of the contents should deal with ethics and good practice; the business management proportion, while useful, is less needed by those already business oriented.

**Directory of Unpublished Experimental Mental Measures: Volume 1** by Bert A. Goldman and John L. Saunders. Behavioral Publications, Inc., 72 Fifth Ave., New York 10011. 1974. 223 pp. \$12.95.

Really compilers, the "authors" provide minimal information about various instruments reported in 29 journals during 1970, this volume being intended as the first in a series. The so-called mental measures (not necessarily "unpublished" or used in experiments) are listed in 22 categories from Achievement to Vocational Evaluation (in the Contents, but Vocational Education in the body), the last a catch-all not fitting the compilers' own definition. Good intentions gone astray.

**Vocational Guidance Directory.** Vermont Student Assistance Corporation, 156 College St., Burlington, Vermont 05401. 1974. 150 pp. \$4.50 paperback.

A nationwide listing of "associate degree, diploma or certificate programs available at junior, community and technical colleges, vocational institutes and trade or proprietary schools," this 8½ × 11 directory does not attempt to judge "the quality, reputation or academic rating of any institution listed." The programs are grouped in seven cate-

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gories: agriculture, art, business, engineering, health, human services, and trades. Within each category are numerous subcategories, alphabetically arranged, many including occupations P&G'ers might wish to know more about, e.g., auctioneering, chick sexing, clown, gambling equipment repair, massage, solid waste management.

**Men at Work: Applications of Ergonomics to Performance and Design** by Roy J. Shephard. Charles C Thomas, 301 East Lawrence Ave., Springfield, Illinois 62717. 1974. 396 pp. \$23.50.

The promise in the preface that "jargon and unnecessary technical terms have been avoided" is spiked from the word "ergonomics," the author with his MD and PhD finding it difficult not to expose readers to semantic double jeopardy. Yet the coverage is thin of such topics related to "work use" as fatigue in industry, human cybernetics, motivation of the worker, and aging and handicapped workers. Trying to cover too much (even "Problems of Underdeveloped Nations"), Shephard leads us beside turbid waters.



# Book Reviews

*Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to the Editor, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.*

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|                                                                                                                               |        |                                                                                       |        |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| <b>Commuting Versus Resident Students: Overcoming the Educational Inequities of Living Off Campus</b> by Arthur W. Chickering | p. 618 | <b>Elementary School Careers Education</b> by Frank R. Cross                          | p. 623 |
| <b>Counseling High School Students: Special Problems and Approaches</b> edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy           | p. 619 | <b>Human Interaction in Education</b> by Gene Stanford and Albert E. Roark            | p. 624 |
| <b>Innovations in Client-Centered Therapy</b> edited by David A. Wexler and Laura North Rice                                  | p. 622 | <b>Behavior Mod</b> by Philip J. Hilts                                                | p. 624 |
|                                                                                                                               |        | <b>Mental Retardation: Rehabilitation and Counseling</b> edited by Philip L. Browning | p. 626 |
|                                                                                                                               |        | <b>Career Counseling in the Community College</b> by Charles Healy                    | p. 626 |

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**Commuting Versus Resident Students: Overcoming the Educational Inequities of Living Off Campus** by Arthur W. Chickering. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1974. 150 pp. \$8.95.

In this book Chickering summarizes extensive research on the characteristics of commuter students as compared with residential college students. Commuters come from more disadvantaged homes and have lower grades, narrower interests, and more conservative attitudes. They are little involved in the academic or social activities of the campus and are less exposed to different life styles and life possibilities. They have a lower self-image and lower life goals, and they tend to conform and to accept being controlled by authority.

The commuters start with less and end with less. They change less during the four years than do resident students or those in private housing away from parents. The commuter makes fewer friends, reads less, and has fewer discussions with peers or faculty. Group identity remains largely with the sub-cultural and neighborhood group from which the commuter comes.

There is also much information in this book about residential students and the changes they undergo during the four years in both academic and social development. A third group is also discussed: those students who commute but do not live with their parents. They tend to have a better self-concept and to be more liberal and independent.

This book should be of great value to those who see commuter colleges adamantly pursuing policies and procedures carried over from residential schools and who are seeking changes. Chickering recommends greater flexibility and individualization to encourage and enhance changes and choices for the commuter student. He recommends specific administrative processes and educational arrangements that can help students choose an education that will be most effective for their goals and personal development.

The home-dwelling student needs more intensive and extensive opportunities to examine educational and career goals; more adequate orientation to programs, changes, faculty, and fields of learning; a curriculum of relevance to personal development (au-

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tonomy, identity, emotional awareness and control, interpersonal relations, and integrity); and consideration of the roles of parent and citizen, which flow from professional and vocational training.

This book is a small jewel for those interested in understanding the commuter students and their needs. It is well written and documented and takes a broad view of the educative process as well as its content. The analysis of commuter characteristics is used to develop a series of very practical recommended changes aimed at providing the commuter student with a bridge to the resources and riches of college and the life to which it leads.—*H. Schuchman, University of Illinois, Chicago.*

**Counseling High School Students: Special Problems and Approaches** edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 256 pp. \$10.75.

This book presents a series of short chapters, each dealing with a special critical guidance problem. Most topics are explored in such a concise way, however, that "detailed" is

hardly the appropriate description. Herein lies both the value and the limitation of the book.

As an overview highlighting important priorities in the counseling needs of students, it is excellent—practical, realistic, and to the point. However, it would be a mistake for a novice in the field to expect to achieve any depth of understanding without considerable additional study. For example, in the opening chapter, entitled "Counseling with Non-College Bound Adolescents," Hardy and Cull cover the entire field of career theories in 10 pages. They present an excellent summary, which should whet one's appetite for further reading.

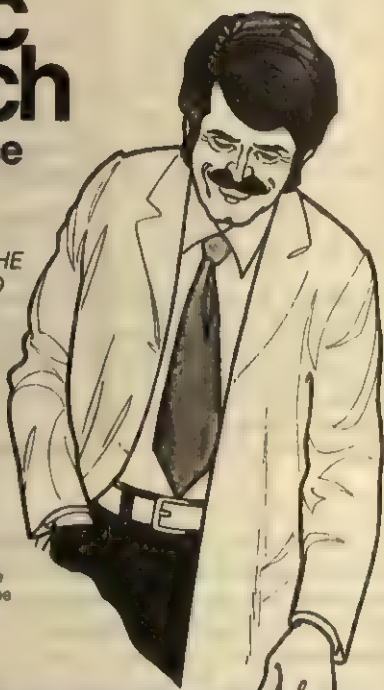
An especially good chapter, "Group Counseling," gives some very specific and helpful guidelines for the school counselor as well as providing an excellent discussion of the rationale for group work. It is obvious that the writer of this chapter has experience in the school setting. A chapter entitled "Career Counseling" rehearses the usual criticisms of the school counselor's services in vocational guidance but offers little in the way of new

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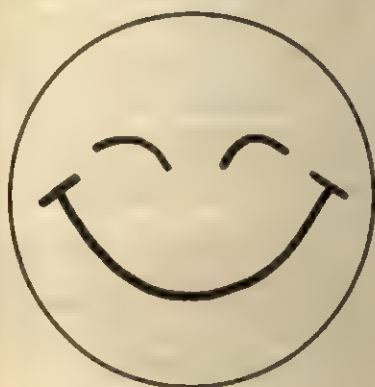
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approaches. The author does touch briefly on the problem of job placement for the handicapped. A detailed description of the latest edition of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, with helpful suggestions as to its effective use in counseling, is the longest chapter in the book and merits the school counselor's attention.

The problems of the delinquent boy and girl are reviewed concisely but interestingly and helpfully in two separate chapters. The difficult problem of the "Educational and Psychological Appraisal of the Disadvantaged" is explored, again with a very brief review of all types of measurement instruments. The real value of this discussion is the well-supported emphasis on sound professional judgment in the use of tests and test results. The book concludes with two chapters on drugs and includes an interesting review of the major drugs on the scene today, with some very realistic comments on their effects. The author makes no attempt to moralize but tries to give the counselor some insight into the drug problem. This is an excellent presentation.

The book reads quickly and interestingly and should have value to the school counselor as well as to the rehabilitation and the placement counselor as a reference and a motivator. It could provide an avenue for greater teacher understanding of the counselor's role, the student's needs, and the teacher's responsibility in responding to student needs.

I hope that no reader will consider the study of this book alone as adequate preparation for the critical role of a counselor.—  
*Annabelle E. Ferguson, Prince George's County Public Schools, Landover, Maryland.*

**Innovations in Client-Centered Therapy** edited by David A. Wexler and Laura North Rice. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1974. 517 pp. \$22.50.

Some books live on and some books die; this volume is a landmark contribution to the literature of client-centered therapy and will serve as a basic reference for many decades to come.

The 15 chapters of the book are originals, prepared especially for this volume by a distinguished group of scholar-practitioners.

The chapters are deep and absorbing because of their broad and innovative interpretations of the goals, processes, outcomes, and future of the client-centered viewpoint. The chapters have been written from a new and refreshing perspective and represent the growing edge of the client-centered approach. They expand the thinking of both the academician and the practitioner.

The book has four integrated parts. In Part 1 Carl Rogers has presented an updated and revised look at the future of client-centered therapy. It is an engaging introduction to the volume because of the personalized and open quality of the writing. Part 2 focuses on client-centered theory and the degree to which it has become expanded and refined since its introduction in 1942. The theory has broadened particularly in the areas of information processing and the client's transition from in-counseling self-awareness to outside-of-counseling behavioral change.

Part 3 deals with the practice of client-centered therapy and extends fundamental process components toward being more experimental, concrete, evocative, and creative, especially the chapter that merges the process of client-centered therapy with a gestalt approach. Part 4 goes beyond the application of client-centered therapy to individuals and points to its application in working with groups and the community and in facilitating change in the larger society and its institutions.

This book is applicable to the fields of counseling, communications, education, and community organization. It serves as a clear indication that client-centered theory and practice have not died on the vine of a technocratic and mechanistic world. Client-centered thinking is alive and well because it has maintained its momentum by continuing to be experimental, creative, dynamic, and attuned to the current and future psychological needs of persons living in an ever-changing and quick-answer-oriented society.

All contributors to this volume are to be commended for their development of individualized perspectives that blend into a cohesive whole. It is a book well worth reading and keeping at your elbow for basic and continuing reference; it will remain a substantive contribution for many tomorrows to come.—*Angelo V. Boy, University of New Hampshire, Durham.*

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*Elementary School Careers Education* by Frank R. Cross. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1974. 140 pp. \$4.95 paperback.

*Elementary School Careers Education* is what the author intended it to be: a book of ideals inspired by the needs of children. It looks to the future, suggesting guidelines for renewing and revitalizing the educative process. It is forthright and thorough in suggesting how the human aspects of career development can be integrated into all that permeates human learning in the school. It is a book for real people who work with real youngsters.

One would have to agree with Cross that "elementary school career education is included in a majority of models but it receives far less attention than its importance warrants." The model proposed in this publication is life-based and focuses entirely on the careers education of elementary school children. In presenting his life careers model, which is the intent and substance of the book, the author develops the notion of four major life careers—as family member, as citizen, as (vocational) worker, and as pursuer of avocational interests.



Cross is concerned with the individual's learning in the educative process. He relates this to the progressive and continuous exposure of children to both the internal (self) and external (environmental) factors that contribute to one's living and learning today and to one's preparation for tomorrow. His chapter dealing with the learning of elementary school children attests to the self-concept, human relationships, and intellectual elements, among others, as these are components of a comprehensive program of careers education.

The book offers a paradigm for career education in the elementary school and accomplishes that objective very nicely. Not only are theoretical considerations and the component elements of the program fully identified, but guidelines for implementing the model are described and discussed. It is not intended as a "how-to" book. It is a book for thinking persons, particularly those who are searching for a sound way to attend to career education professionally in the elementary school. One should read and explore the ideals this book offers.—*Harold L. Munson, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York.*

**Human Interaction in Education** by Gene Stanford and Albert E. Roark. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1974. 308 pp. \$4.50.

This book of nine chapters is full of valuable information, especially from the point of view of a classroom teacher or others interested in the human dimension of today's schools. It's not that the book contains many new ideas or concepts but rather that it is systematically and creatively organized to present a wealth of human interaction issues. The reader of this volume will come out with an expanded view of what is possible in interpersonal dynamics within the classroom setting.

After presenting a philosophical and theoretical premise, the authors proceed to lay out a great collection of process-oriented interaction activities that are based on experiential learning principles. They maintain a philosophically congruent position throughout that includes a developmental, step-by-step presentation for building classroom relationships among the participants.

The authors make a strong point in the

preface by indicating that all too frequently "these attempts to humanize education have focused on content or structure and have ignored the process through which significant learning takes place, which in our view is interaction with other human beings."

They attack the prevailing problem of educational people reaching into their "bag" for their favorite trick or activity without having either a process understanding or an underlying educational objective. Stanford and Roark go further by declaring that education is essentially a social process; they then present a detailed consideration of its meaning and suggestions for adopting and implementing activities viewed from this social interactive perspective.

Other strengths of this book should be noted. I believe the authors do an excellent job of opening up some of the mysteries of group process and feelings of group cohesiveness. Their sequential presentation of group development needs is helpful even to individuals with considerable group experience. Another strength of this book, especially for the practitioner, is the listing of additional resources (after the references) at the end of chapters 4 through 8.

This text would have been greatly strengthened had the authors indicated the suggested grade or age range for a given activity. Certainly teachers can be expected to make determinations of age or grade level appropriateness, but guidelines from the authors could be a real time-saver for the practitioner.

This book merits inclusion in the library of classroom practitioners, teacher educators, staff development specialists, curriculum writers, and others interested in establishing a humane classroom environment.—*Loren L. Benson, Hopkins (Minnesota) Public Schools.*

**Behavior Mod** by Philip J. Hills. New York: Harper's Magazine Press, 1974. 242 pp. \$7.95.

The purposes of this book are to inform and warn the general public about the powerful potential for good or evil of behavior modification technology. It is written in popular style, is mostly serious, but is often flippant. The author is a journalist by profession and is concerned about the public's lack of awareness regarding behavior modification theory and practice. The main value of this book for

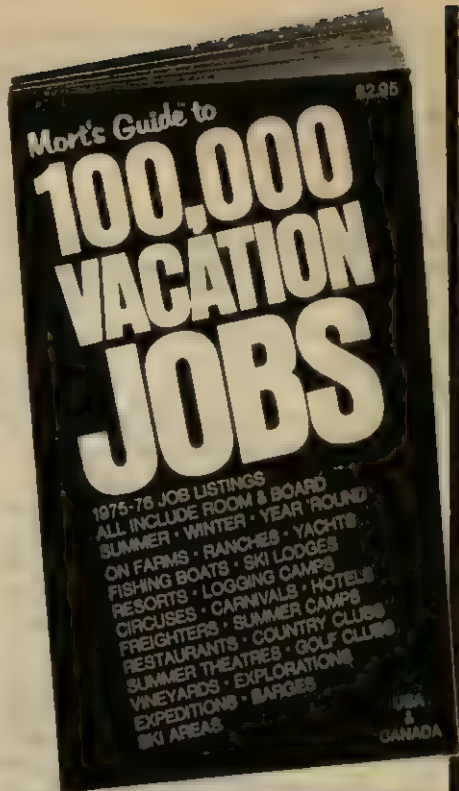
helping professionals is that it would enable them to see what the public is likely to be reading about this controversial technology. This book is probably being widely read, especially since the author and his book were featured on the September 4, 1974, "Today" TV show.

While intended as a fairly wide-ranging description, critique, apology, and warning for behavior modification methods, it comes across to me as "scare" literature. The dust jacket and the general tone of the writing is one of warning about the dire consequences that can result from the misuse of this powerful technology. While there is no argument that behavior modification methods in the hands of unscrupulous persons could (and sometimes do) result in cruel and potentially disastrous consequences, the public interest is not served by engendering fearful and suspicious attitudes toward professional persons who use this modern methodology.

The author effectively traces the origins of the concepts and methods of behavior modification in terms lay readers can understand. He lays out the practical and ethical issues of control and misuse, but I find his choice of descriptive terminology, chapter headings, and style inexcusably flippant and unfairly critical. Pejorative terms such as "mod squad-ers" and "mod squad platoons" are used frequently. The author's serious intent is questionable when he uses such terms as "Crazy Og" to describe research specialists like Ogden Lindsley.

The strength of the book lies in the systematic survey of behavior modification methods. The chapters on applications to industry and government are especially objective and much less hortatory in tone than other chapters. The experiments the author cites are fairly balanced between those with exciting positive human potential and those with bizarre and frightening intent and results. While not intended as a scholarly work, the book nevertheless documents most of these illustrations with the basic reference or experiment. This documentation practice is inconsistent, however, since several experimenters cited had no references in the "Source Notes" at the end of the book.

This book brings to the forefront of public awareness many of the issues regarding the use of behavior modification technology. It is my opinion, however, that the book does a



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net disservice to helping professionals and behavioral science researchers as well as to the public, whom this book was designed to enlighten.—*Lawrence M. Brammer, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.*

**Mental Retardation: Rehabilitation and Counseling** edited by Philip L. Browning. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 430 pp. \$15.75.

School counselors, rehabilitation counselors, and counselor educators who have been unable to keep abreast of research trends and community resources pertaining to the mentally retarded will find this book highly informative. During the past 10 years, federal-state programs have been created that offer work-study opportunities and evaluation procedures to assist counselors in school or rehabilitation settings to help the mentally retarded. Dissemination of this information is certainly furthered through this book, for Browning has provided a succinct updating of funding, programs, and work-study and evaluation approaches. Descriptive data are provided to show the impact of multiagency efforts, along with extensive bibliographies.

Counselor educators trying to orient students to rehabilitation in general will also discover compact, current, and clear communication in several chapters pertaining to the history of rehabilitation and the role of the rehabilitation counselor. A 112-page appendix includes further readings, a listing of research and demonstration projects in mental retardation, an annotated bibliography on counseling with the mentally retarded, and film reviews—a broadening of resources and their retrieval long needed by instructors in rehabilitation counselor education.

This book would enrich any reader who shares one or more of the following assumptions mentioned in the book: The retarded are incurable; they lack emotional pain and thus do not need counseling; they lack verbal skills to carry on meaningful conversation; they are unable either to engage in abstract thinking or gain insight. Attitudinally, *Mental Retardation* loosens expectancies about counseling approaches with the low verbal or repertoire-limited person. Practicum supervisors who encounter disillusioned students after the students' first exposure to the mildly retarded will be interested in a very excellent

chapter by Halpern and Berard, in which they describe the mildly retarded and supply recommendations for counseling.

Also included in the book is a futuristic chapter, which would serve as common ground—for students and counselors in both rehabilitation and school settings—for a discussion of interprofessional cooperation. Some interesting projections are made in regard to trends in rehabilitating the mentally retarded. Services, support personnel, and attitudes are discussed.

There are weaknesses in the editor's selections, primarily the inclusion of chapters concerned with research methodology, which has been better dealt with elsewhere; a superficial chapter describing the parameters of mental retardation; and a little question-begging in a chapter promulgating the behavioral approach to rehabilitation of the mentally retarded. My dominant impression of the book, however, is that it is useful and usable. It may even be important in effecting change in the rehabilitation of the mentally retarded through meeting an information need and restructuring attitudes.—*William M. Holbert, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.*

**Career Counseling in the Community College** by Charles Healy. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 140 pp. \$8.75 hardbound, \$5.95 paperback.

A book on career counseling in community colleges should be a best seller in light of the current high level of interest in occupational education in these institutions. However, practitioners will find in Healy's book on the subject only limited help in his brief expositions of replicable procedures for counseling about vocational choice. Doctoral candidates seeking thesis topics and counselors embarking on research may find the book to be a source of ideas about replication and validation. Other counselors will search in vain for an explanation of how career counseling differs from other types, how it relates to occupational and general education, and who can be trained to give this kind of service.

The focus of the book is on the replicability of 13 procedures that can be used in counseling about vocational choice. The procedures are in most cases limited to neither the community college level nor to career education.

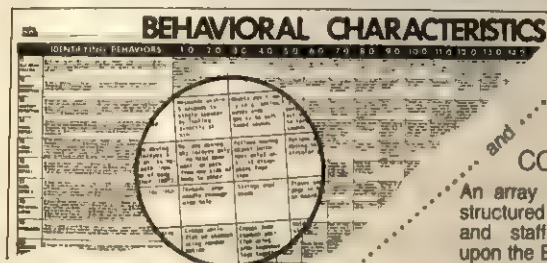


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In fact, six of the procedures set forth are designed to help clients who have "deficits in development."

Furthermore, much of the research on the procedures has been conducted with clients other than community college students. One might conclude that the book should have a wider audience than community college counselors. At the same time, the book appears to miss the mark if its intended audience is indeed this group. Depending on the reader, the book is either too long or too short, too theoretical or too down-to-earth. Persons without counseling credentials will find too little information to help them do better career advising; others are unlikely to be stimulated by discussions of replicability.

There appears to be far too little attention given to new technological developments in the delivery of career guidance services and a concomitant obeisance to leaders from the past. Still, the major weakness is the confusion of career counseling with vocational choice, little attention being given to other aspects of career counseling/education.

Finally, the reader will be distracted by an inexcusable number of misspellings, other typographical errors, a persistent use of "etc.," and a general lack of editing of the text. An example of one such error is "Gayne (1970)" (p. 55) for "Gagné (1965)" (bibliography).—*Dorothy M. Knoell, California Postsecondary Education Commission, Sacramento.*

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All material should aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners. For a detailed description of stylistic and other requirements, authors are referred to Judy Wall's article, "Getting into Print in P&G: How It's Done," in the May 1974 issue of P&G. Following are guidelines for submitting a manuscript.

## REQUIREMENTS

1. Send the *original* and two *clear* copies. Original should be typed on 8½ x 11 nontranslucent white bond.
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3. Leave generous margins (at least an inch all around) on each page.
4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.
5. Place references, each table, and each figure on pages separate from the text.
6. Place authors' names, positions, titles, places of employment, and mailing addresses on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.
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8. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.
9. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1607 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

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3. *Dialogues.* Dialogues should follow the length requirements of full-length articles. They should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted for publication.
4. *Poems.* Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors.
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# The Personnel and Guidance Journal

Special Issue

volume 53

number 9

may 1975

Career Development:  
Guidance and Education



American Personnel and Guidance Association

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Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered, U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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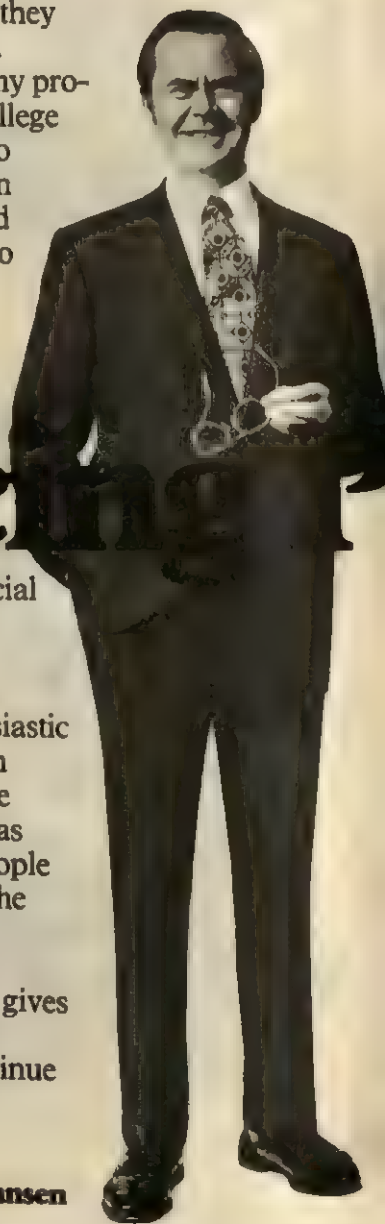
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# Career Development: Guidance and Education

Lorraine Sundal Hansen and Norman C. Gysbers, Guest Editors



Lorraine Sundal Hansen  
(photo by Lew Stern)



Norman C. Gysbers  
(photo by Ron Marquette)

**635 This One Has a Story Too**

*Leo Goldman*

**636 A Different Approach to Career Education**

*Lorraine Sundal Hansen, Norman C. Gysbers*

## Conceptual Models

**638 A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement**

*Lorraine Sundal Hansen, W. Wesley Tennyson*

In this article the authors identify four conceptions of career education. They then present a conceptual framework for career development programs; this framework has grown out of programmatic research that the authors have carried out over the past five years. Finally, they suggest ways in which counseling personnel can use such a framework in career education programs.

**647 Beyond Career Development—Life Career Development**

*Norman C. Gysbers, Earl J. Moore*

The authors provide a brief review of the evolution of theory and practice in career guidance from an occupational choice perspective to a career development perspective. They suggest that career development should be broadened to become life career development and that it should serve as a conceptual framework for career guidance programs at all levels. In this context they describe three kinds of program responsibilities: curriculum-based, individual facilitation, and on-call.

## Illustrative Developmental Programs

### **656 The Change Process Applied to Career Development Programs**

*Arland N. Benson, Donald H. Blocher*

The growing emphasis on organizational change and curriculum intervention is given a new look through the eyes of a change process model that provides a framework for examining the steps in developing, implementing, evaluating, and expanding a career development program.

### **663 Field Testing a Comprehensive Career Guidance Program, K-12**

*Byron E. McKinnon, G. Brian Jones*

This article describes the rationale, developmental framework, needs assessment, and evaluation of the comprehensive career guidance project in Mesa, Arizona. The authors discuss the unique ways in which counselors are actively working with teachers and curriculum to bring about changes in counselor roles and career guidance delivery.

### **668 Update: The Developmental Career Guidance Project**

*George E. Leonard, Thelma J. Vriend*

Two of the innovators of the concept of career development through curriculum describe the current status of the DCGP in Detroit, Michigan, giving special emphasis to evaluation outcomes. The DCGP is one of the few developmental programs that has been in existence long enough to have accumulated evaluative data on the impact of the program on student career development. This program appears to be an educational innovation that has survived.

### **672 A Systematic Career Development Program in a Liberal Arts College**

*Richard J. Thoni, Patricia M. Olsson*

A small liberal arts college has taken a serious interest in student career development and has created a sequence of experiences and career planning approaches for the student in a four-year college. The authors describe the seven stages of career development at the college level.

### **676 Meeting Career Needs in Two-Year Institutions**

*Michael Wollman, Diane A. Johnson, James E. Bottoms*

Students in community colleges and vocational-technical schools, because of the diversity of their ages, needs, and goals, require special programs and special assistance in career planning and exploration. It is only recently that systematic attention has been given to these needs in two-year institutions. The authors describe several promising career guidance strategies that they have implemented in such settings.

### **681 Programs for Adults**

*Nancy K. Schlossberg*

There is an increasing focus on adult career shifts, and the author describes the need for giving attention to this population through community intervention and through innovative educational-vocational counseling programs designed for this group. She also cites counseling and placement agencies geared especially to women.

(Contents continued on following page)

**686 Agency Settings for Career Guidance**

*Donn E. Brolin*

Career guidance is a vital part of programs in many agency settings across the country. In this article the author highlights the work being done in such places as rehabilitation centers, employment agencies, and various human development corporations. He also makes recommendations for improving agency services in career guidance.

## Methods, Strategies, and Competencies for Implementation

**694 New Career Development Strategies: Methods and Resources**

*Juliet V. Miller, Libby Benjamin*

The authors pull together a wide variety of practical methods and media for implementing career guidance programs from kindergarten through maturity. They draw on their extensive work with ERIC-CAPS and summarize several developmental strategies that might be used by teachers, counselors, or program developers.

**700 Emerging Career Guidance Competencies**

*Anita M. Mitchell*

The focus on accountability has caused teacher educators, counselor educators, and counselors to review the competencies needed to perform various parts of their professional responsibilities. The author examines the career development competencies needed and recommends the changes in preservice and inservice counselor education that are necessary in order to prepare counselors with the competencies they must have to perform new roles.

## The Interface with New Thrusts in Education

**706 Structuring Personal Integration into Career Education**

*David V. Tiedeman*

The author puts together three historical thrusts in career development in such a way that counselors can operationalize them as they develop intervention and decision making programs that focus on the reintegration of self. He uses the example of the ERIC information system to develop his theory of self-direction through an in-forming system.

**712 Swinging Into the Future**

*Garry R. Walz*

The author adopts a futuristic stance and helps us to anticipate implications for career guidance in the next quarter of a century. He also suggests a close linkage between the alternative futures movement and career guidance.

*Cover and graphic design by Wayne M. Hilburn*



## This one has a story too

If you are reading this, perhaps you also have read the introductions to other P&G Special Issues and Special Features. And perhaps you noticed that all of them had a story behind them. Well, this one is no different in that regard.

For over three years we on the Editorial Board have been talking about sponsoring a Special Issue on the topic of career guidance. During that time many people, APGA staff as well as APGA members, urged that we sponsor such an issue. But for two of those three years we could not find anyone who would—and could—take on the burden of planning and carrying through on the project. Fortunately, two of the top people in this area offered to undertake the task and have now brought us a well-conceived and well-organized wealth of material.

This issue helps fill some gaps in our recent literature, and we hope it will stimulate others to write in an area in which, for some reason, we have not received very many unsolicited manuscripts that contained new ideas. I hope too that this issue will help to clear up some of the ambiguity surrounding "career education" and "career guidance," terms which have been used to mean everything from old-fashioned Parsonian matching of person with occupation to the entire process of human development.

Whether conceived narrowly or incorporated into broader definitions, the process of helping people to plan and implement the work aspect of their lives has been a major function of the field of counseling and guidance from its very beginning. Now, with a renewed interest in this area nationally, with APGA's commitment to career guidance through recent policy statements, and with the Association's major leadership in introducing legislation in the U.S. Congress as we go to press, we may well be at the beginning of a large step forward in both the quality and quantity of services and programs. This issue should make a fine contribution toward that step. ■ *Leo Goldman, Editor*

# A different approach to career education

Much has been written on career education in the past three years but relatively little on the past and potential contributions of career development and career guidance to it. It is the purpose of this Special Issue to begin to fill that void. We believe this issue represents a somewhat different approach, a career guidance and career development approach to career education that emphasizes ways in which guidance and counseling personnel can become creative masters of their own professional roles through the development of comprehensive career guidance programs. It presents a view of such personnel as agents of educational and societal change rather than as instruments of adjusting youth and adults to the status quo. It presents models, strategies, resources, and competencies through which these personnel can help individuals gain more conscious control over and responsibility for their lives.

We could not cover in this issue all topics, populations, or settings, much as we would have liked to. We present no review of career development theories or of the literature on occupational socialization, assuming that most guidance and counseling personnel are familiar with them; we do not give special attention to women, minorities, and the handicapped, although the special needs of these populations are fully acknowledged and are integrated into several articles; we do not delve into computer-assisted career guidance or the research on career needs, as material on those topics has been published by APGA; we do not feature recent research, although evaluation data are included in articles when available and appropriate.

The focus here is on selected developmental career guidance programs in a variety of settings, most of which programs start with the career development of individuals and their needs rather than with the world of work. Career is viewed broadly to stress life roles and life styles, occupation being considered only one part of career, although this definition is not used by all authors. There is a definite bias toward programs built on changing individuals in a dynamic society, on developing in persons a sense of career—a sense of self.

The issue consists of four sections, Section 1 providing some conceptual models and frameworks that might serve as a basis for interventions and program development. Section 2 presents a variety of illustrative developmental programs from kindergarten through retirement. Section 3 provides a compilation of strategies and resources that are vehicles for accomplishing program goals and suggests possible career guidance competencies needed by guidance and counseling personnel. Section 4 looks at the interrelationship among career guidance, career education, and futuristics.

Of special significance are the one-page editorial statements of a number of leaders in and out of education, who remind us that there is no consensus on career development/career guidance/career education and who highlight a number of salient issues related to guidance and counseling personnel involvement.

Each article represents the authors' own view. While we may not agree with all viewpoints, we trust that the articles will be provocative and will motivate practitioners and counselor educators to draw on career development insights and knowledge and the legacy of the guidance and counseling profession. Our goal is to help extend the context of career education beyond the economic role and to help shape and reshape programs that can truly help children, adolescents, adults, and the aging in their positive career development over the life span. ■ *Lorraine Sundal Hansen and Norman C. Gysbers, Guest Editors*

## Section I

# Conceptual Models

This section presents two guidance-based conceptual models of career development. On a narrow-to-broad spectrum of four different conceptions of career education, they represent position three (a comprehensive self-development and career management task approach) and position four (a life career development approach). Positions one and two, which have been dealt with widely in the professional literature, are not presented, since they have in general represented only the economic role in career education or preparation for a job or paid employment. The conceptualizations discussed here include employability and occupational education but are not limited to the economic or work role. The theoretical frameworks offered are views of career education from a career development and career guidance perspective.





# A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement

Lorraine Sundal Hansen and W. Wesley Tennyson

The counseling and guidance process has always been thought of as a process of helping individuals examine their life experiences, with the goal that they might know themselves and their environment better and act on that knowledge more purposefully and creatively. Developmental career guidance has increasingly been capturing the attention of counseling personnel in a variety of settings. The gradual emergence of comprehensive, systematic career guidance programs in schools, colleges, and agencies offers counselors an excellent opportunity to advance beyond the reflective, clinical posture of the past and take on the role of an active agent in helping individuals become conscious "career managers" in resolving the management tasks of their careers.

The concomitant movement today called career education has muddied the waters a bit, because parts of it have ignored the actual or potential contributions of counseling and career development to career education programs. If career guidance is to move beyond the limited approaches of the past, and if career education is to become more than the curriculum fad of the 1970s, ways need to be found to incorporate the salient principles of career development into an integrated program that focuses

on the self-development of individuals and the tasks facing them as they move through various stages of career over the life span. We propose that career development offers the most viable integrating base and unifying concept for career guidance and career education and for the work of counseling personnel.

For a variety of reasons, career guidance and career counseling have not been a priority either in most practitioner settings or in counselor education. Today the continuing unmet career needs of youth and adults are beginning to be recognized, resulting in a revitalization of the career motif and the creation—in schools, agencies, and colleges—of a plethora of discrete models and strategies for career guidance and career education, often unconnected to each other and seldom tied to comprehensive objectives or related to human career needs. Career development as an integrating construct can help educators and counseling personnel in educational and community institutions to unify their efforts to facilitate actively the individual's management of his or her career.

Within this framework, this article has three purposes. First, we present, through a philosophic spectrum, a perspective of where society is today in career guidance, career development, and career education. Second, we describe and illustrate a content/process conceptualization for a kindergarten through post-high-school career development program, which can be adapted to adult, midlife, and preretirement

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career stages (i.e., life span career management). Third, we suggest ways in which such a framework has been and can be used by counseling personnel and educators in career guidance and career education programs.

## CURRENT PERSPECTIVES

It was in the late sixties that career again became a prominent theme in counseling and education and caused counseling personnel to begin to look at their practices critically. That decade has been described as a time of

awakening group consciousness, of indignation and outrage fed by a spreading realization of the pervasiveness of social and economic inequality and deprivation; of insurgency among Blacks, Chicanos, and native Americans; of sharp challenges by women liberationists, youth counter-cultures, conservationists, and consumer protection groups; of the championing of the values of the new individualism and "Consciousness III"; of the erosion of popular trust in major institutions—business firms, organized labor, Congress, the executive branch of federal government, the military, the courts, the press, the schools . . . of breathtaking social, economic, and technological change; and of the outward thrust of a new hedonism, aptly characterized by Martha Wolfenstein as the "fun morality." (Borow 1974, p. 4)

The growing search for a new individualism and self-betterment suggests that "today, more than ever, human experience is essentially a process of choosing and deciding among possible stimuli and courses of action" (Kroll et al. 1970, p. 2). With increasing self-awareness, individuals have become more insistent on choosing—even creating—the goals and means they consider to be of value to themselves and to society. In order that they might manage the complexities of their modern-day environment, it seems essential that individuals acquire the skills for choosing, whether the choice relates to partner, community, family, or work, the latter being one of the significant ways in which individuals interact with that environment.

## Obstacles to Career Management

Today's world presents obstacles that hinder individuals from developing and expressing their talents in their own unique ways. At each stage of life a person is confronted by societal conditions and problems that create personal dilemmas and thus affect the person's continuing development and ability to manage a career.

Among these problems are the changing meanings of work—thoughtful challenges of the traditional work ethic, mid-life career changes, and concerted efforts to achieve balance among multiple life roles. A tight labor market creates limits on occupational opportunities, suggesting the need for counseling with regard to alternative occupations. There is the walling off of the employment-bound from the college-bound and of the school from the community in ways that limit the development of reality-based curricular and counseling experiences. An information deficit is created because of an open, fast-changing society in which it is difficult for one to know the range of options available or the means to achieve them. Finally, there are the special needs of bypassed populations, especially women, the handicapped, and minorities, who have been outside of the opportunity structure, who lack the sense of agency or positive self-concept that will allow their careers to develop, and who need to know the many life style options available to them.

## Conceptions of Career Education

Career education is one response to a modern world in which purposeful choosing is imperative if change is to be managed in ways that facilitate personal development. But philosophies of career education vary greatly in their focus, some almost ignoring the counseling/career development emphasis, others making it the core of their approaches. These models may be classified accord-

ing to whether the theorist chooses to focus on (a) work or the individual, (b) content or process, (c) work roles or multiple roles, and (d) training for employability or educating for life. They may even be grouped according to how work itself is defined, that is, whether it is limited to paid endeavors or expanded to include all significant goal-directed activity. Each of these classifications is reflected on the following continuum, an ordering of function from very narrow to extremely broad points of view. These are not discrete categories but rather overlapping ones, with major points of emphasis in each position on either job, work, self, or life.

Perhaps the most narrow conception is one that equates career education with occupational training. Those who take this position speak with enthusiasm about developing employability skills. What is emphasized is content necessary to match the person to the *job*, and career education is seen as a segmented program within the curriculum.

Next on the continuum is a conception that puts *work* as the central focus, stressing the need to give attention to occupational orientation and preparation. Emphasis is again on content, but in this case exploration of occupational clusters is added to skill training. Typically those who hold this point of view define work as the activities engaged in for immediate income and production. Career is defined as the sum total of an individual's work experience. Thus career is external to the individual, and career education is that part of the total educational program dealing specifically with education for work. This is an extremely popular conception, favored by those who want to delimit the concept in a definitive way.

Still further along the continuum is the point of view that *self* is the primary focus of career education. Proponents of this philosophy suggest that work, whether paid or volunteer, provides a major way in which people interact with the envi-

ronment and that exploration in work and community is a useful way to help individuals clarify their values and needs in fashioning a meaningful life. Career is defined as a process internal to the person—a "time extended working out of a purposeful life pattern through work undertaken by the individual" (AVA/NVGA 1973). Career education activities, emphasizing inductive and experience-based approaches to learning, are implemented at all levels and in various settings in systematic programs designed to promote career development. A focus on process expands the range and increases the effectiveness of an individual's perceptions of self, alternatives, and ways of interacting with the environment.

Finally, there is the position of those who see career education as a way of looking at total education, as education for *life* and living. They envision a major restructuring of curriculum and programs, advocating a complete reform of educational institutions. For those holding this point of view, career is synonymous with life, and all education is or should be career education.

This analysis of the several positions and what they imply is important in helping counseling personnel clarify how they can best relate to career education programs or, more significantly, how—by employing their particular skills—they might help to shape better conceptual, operational, or research programs. Obviously, the third and fourth positions on the continuum are most compatible with a counseling and guidance philosophy that promotes self-development.

#### **CAREER MANAGEMENT CONCEPTUAL MODEL: THE CDC**

For counseling personnel at all levels to have an impact on career education programs, they need to examine their



own functioning and become active agents in helping other staff plan, implement, and evaluate program goals, strategies, and outcomes. Their efforts are needed to assure inclusion of guidance philosophy and content in career education. A career management conceptual model is suggested as a framework for the career guidance program and counselor interventions in career education. It is particularly pertinent to settings in which there is opportunity for systematic curricular or programmatic activities.

The Minnesota Career Development Curriculum (CDC), under development over the past five years by a team of faculty and graduate students at the University of Minnesota (Tennyson et al. in press), is presented here because, unlike many career education models, it (a) builds on career development theory and developmental psychology as its rationale, (b) provides a conceptualization based on the changing nature of individuals and the environment, (c) systematically attends to both content and process, and (d) offers a framework for practice and research and useful direction for counselor intervention in emerging programs. We present here a brief description of the career development principles undergirding the model, the career management tasks that form its core, and the process of model development. While it is presently a kindergarten through post-high program approximating the third position on the continuum, the intent is eventually to provide a theoretical description of total life span career development.

Construction of the CDC proceeded in an orderly sequential pattern, moving through descending abstractions from global statements of the mature, competent person to intermediate statements that define life management tasks or competencies and finally to general program objectives that can be translated into specific observable behaviors and

learning activities. The procedure consisted of four major steps.

### **Step 1: Stating the Value Rationale Undergirding the Program**

The first step in formulating a career guidance program is to identify the value premises underlying the program. The rationale consists of a clear statement of desirable outcomes for the individual, including assumptions about human nature and the world.

Idealistically, the goal of the Minnesota CDC is to facilitate development of the fully functioning and effective human being. The educational aim is to develop self-aware, flexible persons who can realize their potentials and acquire the competencies needed to work out relationships between themselves and a complex, changing society.

The CDC team extracted from the literature the following familiar career development principles considered essential to a self-based program. First, career development is a lifelong process of self-development, work being viewed as a vehicle for self-clarification. Second, career development includes the opportunity to examine life roles, occupations, and life styles. Third, the process of life-span career development and decision making is emphasized more than the choice itself. Fourth, management of one's career, the power to direct one's future, the ability to maximize control over one's life is a major tenet. Fifth, the concept of multipotentiality—that each person has the potential for success and satisfaction in a number of occupations—frees individuals from the fear of making wrong choices and increases their available options. Sixth, commitment with tentativeness is a concept that is integral to a model based on changing individuals and society and that recognizes the importance of chance factors in career decisions.

With these career development principles in mind, the CDC team defined

*career development* as part of human development: the lifelong process of self-development within the context of work, paid and volunteer. They saw *career education* as the *teaching, counseling, and community* interventions to facilitate that development. The original CDC program goals were refined recently by a staff designing a national career development project involving television films and related guides and manuals (Agency for Instructional Television 1974). They stated:

The program will enable individuals to express an increasingly positive self-concept; demonstrate some control over their lives and their life plans; develop objectivity in looking at self in relation to others; demonstrate those personal attitudes and interpersonal skills essential to effectiveness in current and future work; demonstrate respect for others and the work they do; identify and explore a number of self-in-work options; demonstrate a developing concept of work by assuming responsibility; develop skills for processing and acting upon information about self-in-work; recognize and describe the relationship and influences of current experience and decisions to present and later career development; experience interrelatedness among school learnings to problems and activities outside of school. (p. 7)

These goals are based on a number of value assumptions that the CDC staff made explicit. For example, the economic reward obtained from work is not sufficient to define a person's worth. Men and women, given the security of economic stability, work to achieve a sense of personal significance. The individual is considered to be a potentially active agent, able to adapt and restructure his or her environment in constructive and satisfying ways. Psychologically healthy people assume responsibility for their own activities, using the educational system to explore the range of means available and even generating their own alternatives and solutions to problems. Finally, equality of opportunity for all, without regard to race, sex, age, or religion, must become a part of everyone's value system. Less attention

should be given to measurement of abilities and more attention to active exploration and development of abilities.

## **Step 2: Identifying and Providing Conceptual Definitions of the Relevant Management Tasks or Competencies**

Ultimate, or global, goals are realized by mastering the management tasks or competencies that are specific to different life stages. Career development stages, like physiological or intellectual development stages, are sequential but are not directly tied to chronological age (Antholz 1972). Each stage has its characteristic tasks of growing and maturing. The second step in career guidance program formulation is to derive these tasks from theory and research on human development by abstracting from the literature those consistent with the rationale.

Drawing on the work of Piaget, Erikson, Havighurst, and other developmental psychologists, the CDC team defined a set of sequential career management tasks. These tasks connote a developing capacity on the part of the individuals to construct their experience and control their environment. Although the rationale for selection and placement of these tasks appears elsewhere (Tennyson et al. in press), they are presented here for kindergarten through post-high.

*Tasks for the primary years* are to: (a) acquire awareness of self, (b) gain a sense of control over one's life, (c) identify with workers, (d) acquire knowledge about workers, (e) acquire interpersonal skills, (f) objectify self before others, and (g) gain respect for other people and the work they do.

*Tasks for the intermediate years* are to: (a) develop a positive self-concept, (b) acquire the discipline of work, (c) identify with the concept of work as a valued institution, (d) increase knowledge about workers, (e) increase interpersonal skills, (f) increase objectification of self before others, and (g) value human dignity.



*Tasks for the junior high years* are to: (a) clarify self-concept; (b) assume responsibility for career planning; (c) formulate tentative career goals; (d) acquire knowledge of occupations, work settings, and life styles; (e) acquire knowledge of educational and occupational resources; (f) develop awareness of the decision-making process; and (g) acquire a sense of independence.

*Tasks for the senior high years* are to: (a) reality test the self-concept; (b) develop awareness of a preferred life style; (c) reformulate tentative career goals; (d) increase knowledge of and experience in occupations and work settings; (e) acquire knowledge of educational and vocational paths; (f) clarify the decision-making process as related to self; and (g) commit oneself with tentativeness within a changing world.

*Tasks for the post-high years* are to: (a) develop interpersonal skills essential to work; (b) develop information processing skills about self and work; (c) reintegrate the self; (d) acquire a sense of community; (e) commit oneself to the concept of career; (f) acquire the determination to participate in change; and (g) creatively apply management skills to life roles.

### **Step 3: Writing Program Objectives Stated in General Behavioral Terms**

Conceptual statements of management tasks represent general abstractions of desirable behaviors for different periods of development and must be translated into objectives. Behavioral objectives represent a descending abstraction and further specification of the broader concepts, and they define the criteria for mastery of the career management tasks.

The CDC team wrote 90 general instructional objectives and 275 specific enabling objectives in order to give specificity to the career management tasks. Examples of the form of these objectives can be found in a series of field-tested resource guides providing a career de-

velopment base for career education under such titles as "Life Styles and Work," "Values Identification," "Self-Concept Exploration," "Significant Others," and "The Social Contribution of Work" (Minnesota Department of Education 1972). The conceptualization also has supported the development of career education programs, media, and materials in schools and colleges in Minnesota and several other states. Most recently it provided the rationale for a national career development project entitled *bread and butterflies* (Agency for Instructional Television 1974).

### **Step 4: Stating Operational Definitions and Alternative Delivery Systems for Program Objectives**

Instructional objectives are made evaluative by clarifying their meaning in terms of observable overt actions from which one infers desirable change. CDC staff believe that operationalizing program objectives is most appropriately done when a particular delivery system is being developed. Different delivery systems employing the same objectives will produce different behavioral reactions in the individual. In evaluating application of the CDC to *bread and butterflies*, for example, a research team found that the television film produced behavioral outcomes substantially different from those produced by other delivery components of the program.

The kinds of delivery systems or strategies for implementing program objectives will vary from one setting and level to another. It is important, however, that career guidance program planning include strategies or methods closely linked to clearly defined program goals, objectives, and management tasks. Among the strategies for career education delivery defined in the CDC are these: counseling (individual, group, peer); infusing through curriculum (modules, units, courses); exploratory work experiences (paid and volunteer);



career information resource centers (career learning centers); multimedia approaches (TV, films, cassettes, simulations); hands-on experiences (integrating academic and vocational); exposure to role models (nontraditional careers and life styles); cross-age teaching (elementary schools, colleges, nursing homes); local inservice training (staff development); placement and follow-up (educational-vocational).

By linking implementation strategies to program goals and objectives, career guidance program planners have a better base for evaluation, which is a vital part of program formulation and decision making.

## **IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING PERSONNEL**

### **For Counselors**

A self-development/career-management-based approach to career education such as the one just described requires leadership and commitment as well as new skills, roles, and relationships on the part of counseling personnel. If counselors are to take advantage of the opportunity to shape and influence career education programs through career guidance, they need a framework for intervention consistent with their long-established concern for human development. The career development conceptual model presented here provides one example of such a framework. It is not intended to be prescriptive but rather to suggest appropriate management tasks, objectives, and implementation strategies on which counselors could draw. While the model easily could be adapted to agency and adult counseling settings, its use thus far has been primarily in schools, community colleges, and liberal arts colleges.

The use of such a model will enable the counselor to become directly involved in career education program development and evaluation as a resource person for

helping identify program goals, strategies, and media. It may also require active counselor participation in team teaching and systems change.

### **For Counselor Educators**

That counselors have had only limited preparation to perform these kinds of functions is well known. Until counselor education programs significantly increase their preservice focus on career development, career education, and career counseling, the counselor will have to obtain knowledge and skills through inservice training.

But there are signs that counselor preparation institutions are beginning to offer more courses and give greater attention to these areas. One major action has been the recent creation of the ACES Commission on Counselor Preparation for Career Development. Some institutions are providing preservice students with more career counseling and career guidance program experience in their practicum and internship settings. A number of counselor educators have been involved in developing conceptual models, program materials, leadership institutes, and inservice workshops. Some have worked closely with teacher educators in infusing career development concepts and methods into teacher preparation. Still others have created programs to prepare career development specialists.

For counseling personnel to become the conscious managers of their own careers and help their clients do the same, both will need to engage in career self-assessment and begin viewing career development/career education as a broader concept of self-development and career task management, which is at the core of both client and counselor functioning. But if they are to become creative managers and decision-makers in their own work settings, counseling personnel will need to rethink their roles, become actively involved, acquire

and use program development skills, and accept new delivery systems. ■

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If career-oriented education is to be successful, guidance and counseling obviously must play a major part in the effort. But unless the guidance and counseling is realistic and informed, it can do more harm than good. There are a number of new myths of which counselors should be wary.

**Myth #1:** *Somewhere out there in the world there is a perfect job for everyone, 100 percent satisfying, 0 percent frustrating.* If there were such a job, the counselor would no doubt rush out to apply for it. Students need to understand that no job is all fun, that all jobs have their good and their bad aspects. To give students other expectations is to prepare them for a lifetime of disappointment.

**Myth #2:** *Every job carries with it a predetermined life style.* Wallace Stevens, the late vice president of the Hartford Insurance Company and one of the most distinguished poets of his generation, had apparently never heard of this principle. Neither has Eric Hoffer, the longshoreman/social critic. And neither had my carpenter grandfather, who in a crisis could have substituted for the conductor in most of the better-known Wagner operas. It is a mistake to job-type a student because the student likes baseball. That student might just grow up to be another such novelist as James T. Farrell!

**Myth #3:** *Students should be encouraged to make career decisions as early as possible.* As soon as students' talents and probable life styles can be identified, this myth suggests, they should zero in on their life work. Quite to the contrary, guidance and counseling should help them avoid becoming locked into decisions that constitute the point of no return, the line beyond which one must pay another fare to get back on the subway of life.

**Myth #4:** *Jobs can be arranged on "career ladders."* You start at the bottom rung and work your way up to the top. This is the modern version of the Horatio Alger rags-to-riches myth. I recently saw a career education plan that suggested, as a typical career education ladder, one in the health professions reaching from ward orderly to chief surgeon. It is doubtful that anyone has ever climbed that particular career ladder. Career ladders have become confused with their opposite: the pecking order.

Guidance and counseling personnel must never lose sight of the fact that the essential function of education is to broaden opportunities for the student whose life might otherwise be severely restricted. Education that narrows the student's options in life is a contradiction in terms, and counselors must never stop reminding both students and educators of this fact.—**John A. Sessions, Assistant Director of Education, AFL-CIO, Washington, D.C.**

Work is in disrepute. It is regarded as boring on the one hand and dehumanizing on the other. If work disappears from the list of Western values, it will be because we have educated our children to believe that it is demeaning and should be avoided.

Unfortunately, those who write about work rarely accept the traditional view reflected in such terms as "the dignity of labor." Intellectuals—those who set the tone for our society—are usually contemptuous of individuals who work with their hands. They themselves have fled from such activities; that is why they became intellectuals. Moreover, their view of the industrial worker is decades behind the event: They still take as their archetype the robotlike assembly-line worker of Charlie Chaplin's *Modern Times*. The plain, statistical fact is that even in the automobile industry, taken as a whole, fewer than 5 percent of the employees work on assembly lines.

The contemporary effort to portray work as unsatisfying, uncreative, and meaningless, as something to be fled in horror, may eventually make it so. As Robert Blauner has pointed out, a major factor influencing the employee's level of job satisfaction is occupational prestige—the community's attitude toward the activities involved in the work.

The most significant molder of popular attitudes today is television. Sociologists finally are beginning to examine the way television orients youngsters toward a life of work. In introducing Melvin L. DeFleur's study called "Occupational Roles as Portrayed on Television," the editors of the *Public Opinion Quarterly* commented: "When Benjamin Franklin was a boy, his father took him on a walk to see various craftsmen at work, with the hope that this survey of occupations would enable him to choose the occupation he would enter. Today children can still see some kinds of workers on the street or in small shops, but they are much more likely to get acquainted with a wide variety of types of work from what they see on the television screen."

DeFleur's examination of what television is saying about the various occupations was based on the types of settings in which the work was being performed—"glamorous," "ordinary," and "humble"—and on groupings that represented "relative power." He concluded: "As a learning source, then, television content that deals with occupational roles can be characterized as selective, unreal, stereotyped, and misleading. At the same time, corrective sources for more realistic occupational information are not ordinarily brought systematically to the attention of children."

These facts are critical for all who are concerned with the problems of career guidance and career choice. Our first task is to teach that work is meaningful, that it serves human needs, that it adds dignity and value to human existence. Such teaching is not incompatible with the effort to improve the processes of work and the society in which it is performed.—**Aaron Levenstein, Professor of Management, Baruch College, City University of New York.**



# Beyond Career Development— Life Career Development

Norman C. Gysbers and Earl J. Moore

Current theories of career development began appearing in the literature during the early 1950s. At that time the occupational choice focus of the first fifty years of career development was beginning to give way to a broader, more comprehensive view of individuals and their occupational development over the life span. Occupational choice was beginning to be seen as a developmental process. Such phrases as "life stages," "vocational tasks," "vocational maturity," and "vocational self-concept" were becoming part of the professional vocabulary.

These new perspectives represented a shift in emphasis; prior to the 1950s, theorists and practitioners had focused most of their attention on the occupational aspects of the transition from school to work. In fact, the first modern formulation of guidance, by Frank Parsons, was based on certain assumptions about occupational choice. Unfortunately, as Borow said:

Parsons' primal version of vocational counseling, or at least the interpretation placed upon it by his followers, was lacking in several respects. It overplayed the importance of self-analysis as a means to helping the individual know his vocational potentialities, oversimplified the dissemination of occupational information as a way of shaping vocational decisions, subordinated the influence of personal values in choice making, and lent at least tacit support to the single-job-for-life hypothesis. (Borow 1973, p. 4)

## CAREER DEVELOPMENT

During the 1950s, theorists began to emphasize a developmental view of occupational choice. It was during this period that the term *vocational development* be-

came popular as a way of describing the broadened view of occupational choice and the many factors that influenced it. During the 1960s, knowledge about this aspect of human development increased dramatically. Increasingly, the terms *career* and *career development* became popular, so that today many theorists and practitioners prefer them to *vocation* and *vocational development*.

Currently many writers and researchers define career development as one aspect of human development. More specifically, it is often described as the interaction of psychological, sociological, economic, physical, and chance factors that shape the career or sequence of occupations, jobs, and positions that individuals hold during their lives (National Vocational Guidance Association 1973).

This expanded view of the career concept is more appropriate than the traditional view of career as an occupational choice. It is more appropriate because it breaks the time barrier that previously restricted the vision of career to only a cross-sectional view of an individual's life. As Super and Bohn (1970, p. 115) have pointed out, "It is well . . . to keep clear the distinction between occupation (what one does) and career (the course pursued over a period of time)." It is more appropriate too because the career concept has become the basis for organizing and interpreting the impact that the

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role of work has on individuals over their lifetimes. Past, present, and possible future occupational and related behaviors can be understood in the context of an individual's overall development. Thus, current conceptions of career development place emphasis on "vocational histories rather than on status at a single point in time, on career criteria rather than occupational criteria" (Jordaan 1974, p. 264).

## LIFE CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Although current career development theories are more appropriate than traditional ones, most still separate individuals' work roles, settings, and events from the other roles, settings, and events in their lives. Because of the increasing complexity and interrelatedness of all aspects of society, it no longer seems possible to clearly separate one role from another, one setting from another, one event from another. We are thus proposing that the meaning of career be expanded to encompass individuals' total lives. As Jones and others (1972) have indicated, the concept of career encompasses a variety of possible patterns of personal choice related to each individual's total life style; its components are occupation, education, personal and social behavior, learning how to learn, social responsibility (i.e., citizenship), and leisure time activities.

Just as the time barrier was broken in the 1950s, it is now time to go beyond the work-oriented barrier that is inherent in some of the current definitions of career development and to focus instead on all aspects of individuals' lives—on life career development. Work roles, work settings, and work-related events are important in the lives of individuals, but they should not be seen in isolation from other important life roles, settings, and events. Nor should they be isolated and fragmented in time and space so that the focus is on only certain periods of an

individual's life. Instead, work-related concerns need to be placed in the context of the total time span of human development so that they can be better understood.

Life career development is defined as self-development over the life span through the integration of the roles, settings, and events of a person's life. When defined in this manner, life career development provides a comprehensive and integrated view of human growth and development over the life span. It has the potential of helping individuals link their past and present circumstances to possible future ones. The life career development perspective provides a personal framework for individuals to help them visualize and plan for their life careers. It has the potential of creating career consciousness in individuals, allowing them to develop life competencies, attitudes, and values. In the words of Reich:

Included within the idea of consciousness is a person's background, education, politics, insight, values, emotions, and philosophy, but consciousness is more than these or even the sum of them. It is the whole man; his "head"; his way of life. It is that by which he creates his own life and thus creates the society in which he lives. (1971, p. 15)

## CONVERGING EMPHASES

The need for an extension and expansion of the career concept from an occupational perspective to a life perspective can be traced, in part, to the many substantial changes that have taken place in society over the past seventy years. During that time, society changed from a rural, agrarian one to a highly complex industrial one. Roles, settings, and events have become more varied, fluid, and interrelated.

These and other changes represented challenges to individuals and to society. To meet these challenges, the government, public and private agencies, and the educational community sought to improve and extend their traditional



programs from early childhood through the adult years. Particularly during the past few years, a common approach to meeting these challenges has been to develop specialized programs in manpower,<sup>1</sup> rehabilitation, and education. While these programs have quickly brought resources and personnel to bear on problems, there has often been considerable overlap of purpose and technique. Many of these programs, for example, have focused on relevance of information and experience, involvement with individuals, the humanization of interpersonal communication, values clarification opportunities, decision making skill development, identity achievement, individual success, and positive self-worth.

A comparison of these programs' purposes and techniques reveals that they bear more than a superficial resemblance to those found in discussions of developmental guidance and counseling programs. Also, many of the processes—such as group techniques, interpersonal communication skills, and decision making procedures—used or suggested in these programs resemble guidance and counseling competencies.

## DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMS

The emerging convergence of many of today's manpower, rehabilitation, and education program purposes, techniques, and competencies with those of guidance and counseling indicates that the government, public and private agencies, and the educational community may be ready to examine ways to develop and implement guidance and counseling in a manner commensurate

with other manpower, rehabilitation, and education programs. There seems to be a readiness to develop and implement guidance and counseling goals and to see them as equal and complementary to goals in these other programs, early childhood through the adult years.

The accomplishment of this, however, will require a reconceptualization of guidance and counseling. Rather than a service-oriented, event-oriented conception focusing on only aspects and segments of human development, guidance and counseling must have a comprehensive developmental conceptualization based on individual and societal needs and must be organized programmatically around person-centered goals and activities designed to meet those needs. What is needed is a life career development perspective of human growth and development to serve as a conceptual base for guidance and counseling program development.

The program conceptualization of guidance and counseling does not deemphasize the importance of working with specific educational and occupational concerns at specific points during an individual's life. Nor is it less responsive to specific personal-social needs of individuals. Instead, this conceptualization recognizes that there are counseling-related understandings and skills that all individuals need as they grow and develop throughout their lives.

To meet current and future individual and societal needs, guidance and counseling programs must assume responsibility for assisting individuals in the development of self-knowledge and interpersonal skills; life career planning and self-placement competencies; and knowledge and understanding of their current and future life career roles, settings, and events—especially those associated with family, education, work, and leisure. Guidance and counseling programs also must assist individuals to understand and relate the meaning of

<sup>1</sup>Note from the Journal staff: Manpower, of course, includes womanpower. In our effort to eliminate sexist terminology from P&G, there are some inherently masculine words (such as manpower and freshman) for which we can find no feminine equivalent or neutral substitute; and we can't bring ourselves to coin such words as personpower or freshwoman. Readers are asked to bear with us—until the English language catches up to P&G policy—and understand that manpower includes women and men in the work force and that freshmen refers to all first-year college students.



instructional and training programs to their present and future life careers, whether these programs take place during the elementary and secondary school years or during the adult and continuing education years.

To reach these person-centered outcomes in a school setting, guidance and counseling programs must be seen as equal and complementary to instructional programs. The theme stressed for school settings is equally applicable to post-secondary institutions and public and private agencies, although the organizational patterns and processes in these settings may vary according to the needs of the clientele.

### **GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING RESPONSIBILITIES**

Three major areas of responsibility emerge from a life career development perspective of guidance and counseling: curriculum-based responsibilities, individual facilitation responsibilities, and on-call responsibilities.

#### **Curriculum-Based Responsibilities**

In manpower, rehabilitation, and other public and private agency settings, curriculum-based guidance and counseling responsibilities focus on the common needs of clients in those settings. For example, some may lack self-confidence, self-understanding, or interpersonal skills. Some may not have appropriate employability skills; that is, they may not know how to find, apply for, and get along on a job. Still others may need assistance in self-assessment toward the goal of making a midlife career change. Such needs can form the basis for developmental guidance and counseling activities that, if successful, will enable the client to do something other than wait until the needs reach crisis proportions. Guidance and counseling personnel in these settings can work directly with clients to meet these needs in group or individual interactions. At other times

they may provide resources and consultation to employers and other community personnel who work directly with clients.

In school settings—including elementary schools, secondary schools, post-secondary schools, vocational-technical schools, community colleges, and four-year colleges—curriculum-based guidance and counseling brings together those activities that take place primarily during regularly scheduled courses of study. These activities may be part of regular classroom instruction or may be organized around special topics in the form of units, modules, or mini-courses. They are based on the guidance-related understandings and skills that all individuals need as they grow and develop. Typical topics are: self-understanding; interpersonal relationships; decision making; values clarification; and information about roles, settings, and events in family, education, work, and leisure. Counselors may be involved directly with students through classroom activities, small groups, or individual interaction, or they may work directly with teachers and instructors to provide resources and consultation.

#### **Individual Facilitation Responsibilities**

Individual facilitation responsibilities include those systematic guidance and counseling activities designed to assist all individuals in continuously monitoring and understanding their growth and development in terms of their own personal goals, values, abilities, aptitudes, and interests. In this context, counselors and others with guidance responsibilities can serve in the capacity of personal development specialists. Personalized and continuous contact and involvement with individuals is stressed rather than incidental, superficial contact.

The guidance and counseling functions in this category provide for the individual accountability needed in man-

power, rehabilitation, and education to assure that the uniqueness of individuals is not lost and that resources are being used fully to facilitate people's life career development. Carrying out individual facilitation responsibilities will involve cooperative planning among personnel in elementary and secondary schools, post-secondary schools, public and private agencies, business and industry, and other interested groups and individuals.

### **On-Call Responsibilities**

On-call guidance responsibilities focus on direct, immediate responses to individual needs, providing such assistance as information seeking, crisis counseling, and consultation. In addition, on-call activities are supportive of curriculum-based and individual facilitative guidance and counseling functions. Adjunct guidance staff—peers, paraprofessionals, volunteers, support staff—can aid counselors in carrying out on-call functions. Peers can be involved in tutorial programs, orientation activities, ombudsman functions, and—with special training—cross-age counseling and leadership in informal dialogue. Paraprofessionals and volunteers can provide meaningful assistance in such areas as placement, follow-up, and community-school-home liaison activities.

Providing direct and immediate responses to individual needs and supporting curriculum-based and individual facilitative guidance activities will require new ways of organizing activities and resources. One approach is to develop guidance and placement centers. Such centers could bring together information and resources and provide for the processing of a wide variety of guidance and counseling activities, such as career exploration groups; peer counseling; individual advisement programs; midlife and later life career counseling; community resource surveys; and educational and occupational placement, follow-up, and follow-through. Centers

could be located in schools, vocational-technical centers, community colleges, four-year institutions, and public and private community agencies. There is an urgent need to develop a coordinated network of such centers in all of these settings in order to meet the life career needs of individuals.

### **THE PROSPECTUS**

The life career development perspective of human growth and development has the potential of becoming a unifying concept around which the many and varied guidance and counseling programs in manpower, rehabilitation, and education are organized to meet the individual and societal needs of tomorrow. Here's how:

- Life career development has investment potential for everyone. It is not the property of one group. Consumers and professionals can relate equally to the basic concepts. There is common relevance for all.
- Other manpower, rehabilitation, and education programs having similar purposes and goals can be integrated around a life career development framework.
- Cultural crises and problems such as drug abuse, human sexuality, human rights, and midlife and later life career changes can be approached directly and comprehensively without creating unnecessary additional program structures.
- Linkage among and between home, school, community, and agency can be accomplished naturally. Programs for continuing and adult education are not only implied but expected.
- Guidance and counseling programs and responsibilities can become part of the total educational mainstream, early childhood through the adult years. On this basis, guidance and

counseling goals and activities based on a life career development perspective become a necessary and integral part of all human development programs.

If schools, colleges, and agencies can begin to implement some of these ideas, they will have started to meet the life career needs of human beings and thus the needs of society. ■

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Super, D. E., & Bohn, M. J., Jr. *Occupational psychology*. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1970.

As I studied the prospectus for this Special Issue of the *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, I felt that many of my views and concerns would be addressed by some of the authors. Since I have not read their contributions, however, I will risk repetition and share my thoughts.

The guest editors of this issue consider career development as part of a lifelong process of human development, career education as what is consciously and systematically done to facilitate that development, and career guidance and career education as vehicles for facilitating change and maximizing human potential, not merely as economic tools to manage manpower. I am in full agreement with the emphasis on lifelong career development when human life, in all of its facets, is considered *the career*. We may envision vast amounts of illuminating knowledge on periods of life as yet virtually untouched by creative research, from the roots of life style in childhood to the continued evolution of the life career after formal retirement.

We are still in a state of confusion in trying to understand how career development, career education, and career guidance converge within an individual life. Considerable energy and attention have been devoted to the creation of explicit materials and methods to be applied in en masse situations. We are now honestly (though gingerly!) facing the fact that en masse approaches may not effect change in some individuals because persons of like age-stage-situation (the usual organizational base for services) may be at entirely different levels of readiness, attention, need, and capacity for investment. It is likely that we may find some of the materials flooding the commercial market useful as part of an individual practitioner's general reservoir of knowledge, to be used with sensitive selectivity in response to expressed or inferred human needs.

There are some missing links between materials and lives. One such link may be discovered through a courageous scrutiny of our implicit assumption (or fond hope!) that content is, or assures, process. Our sensible concern with perfecting a base of reliable, up-to-date knowledge (in occupational information, for example) has absorbed considerable energy and has sometimes blinded us to the fact that knowledge is one early link in a complex chain. Another missing, or at least fragile, link is our uneasiness with the absolute necessity for building philosophy and theory as a springboard for methods, materials, and applications. In essence, we are now confronted with random materials in search of a philosophy. Time, attention, and patience will remedy the situation, through ever-increasing co-equal interchange with persons of many disciplines as well as with those we seek to serve.—**Esther Matthews, Professor of Education, University of Oregon**  
—Eugene.



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**CAREER COUNSELING IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE** by Charles Healy, Univ. of California, Los Angeles. Designed for counselors who help adolescents and young adults in their career development, this book presents distinct procedures for helping people make and implement career plans. Covered are such career tasks as choosing, problem solving, building esteem and managing time. Counseling procedures are described in detail so that counselors may apply them in a replicable manner to their own clients. '74, 160 pp., 1 il., 7 tables, cloth-\$8.75, paper-\$5.95

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## Section II

# Illustrative Developmental Programs

Over the past decade, a number of schools, colleges, and agencies have come to acknowledge their responsibility in attending to the career needs of the young people and adults they serve. Increasingly they have begun to see career education as compatible with human development and liberal education goals in a society committed to maximizing human potentials and human freedom. A number of such institutions have begun to develop systematic programs of career guidance linked to the developmental stages and career growth needs of their particular populations. This section contains articles describing a few selected programs. The programs are at different stages of development and implementation, but most of them have some theoretical base in career psychology and career development.





# The Change Process Applied to Career Development Programs

Arland N. Benson and Donald H. Blocher

Recent approaches to the roles and responsibilities of guidance personnel in the area of career development, as well as general development, have emphasized the need for guidance workers to function within frameworks broader than the traditional one-to-one counseling interview (Benson 1972; Berdie 1972; Blocher 1974; Caldwell 1970; Cook 1971; Dinkmeyer & Carlson 1973). The career development needs of people of all ages—such needs as self-esteem, self-awareness, personal decision making, life planning, life style options, and interpersonal competence—can best be met through a variety of guidance interventions. Guidance and counseling personnel in various social institutions and settings need to consider catalytic roles in organizational changes and teaching roles in staff development. Attending to the process of change, particularly as it applies to organizational development, is essential to the successful implementation of career development programs.

One change process model draws on a number of researched sources of gain in effecting psychological growth and behavior change and is applicable to a wide range of professional settings (Blocher 1974; Blocher & Rapoza 1972; Blocher & Shaffer 1971). This approach is called a systematic eclectic model. It is system-

atic in that it specifies a sequence of actions that are directed to effecting behavior change in the client system and to obtaining feedback about effectiveness in order to provide for continuous improvement of the behavior change system itself. It is eclectic in that it draws on six major sources of gain: communications processes, relationship conditions, public commitment, cognitive learning, social modeling, and operant shaping (Blocher 1974). It is applicable to interventions that involve individual counseling, group work, consultation, teaching, and organizational development. Figure 1 shows the steps in the model.

The model serves as a cognitive map with which workers can orient themselves and measure progress throughout a long-term or complex project, such as the establishment of a comprehensive career development program. The process and principles of organizational development are illustrated below, in the examination of the history of a major career development program in a large suburban school district.

## THE CHANGE PROCESS IN ROSEVILLE

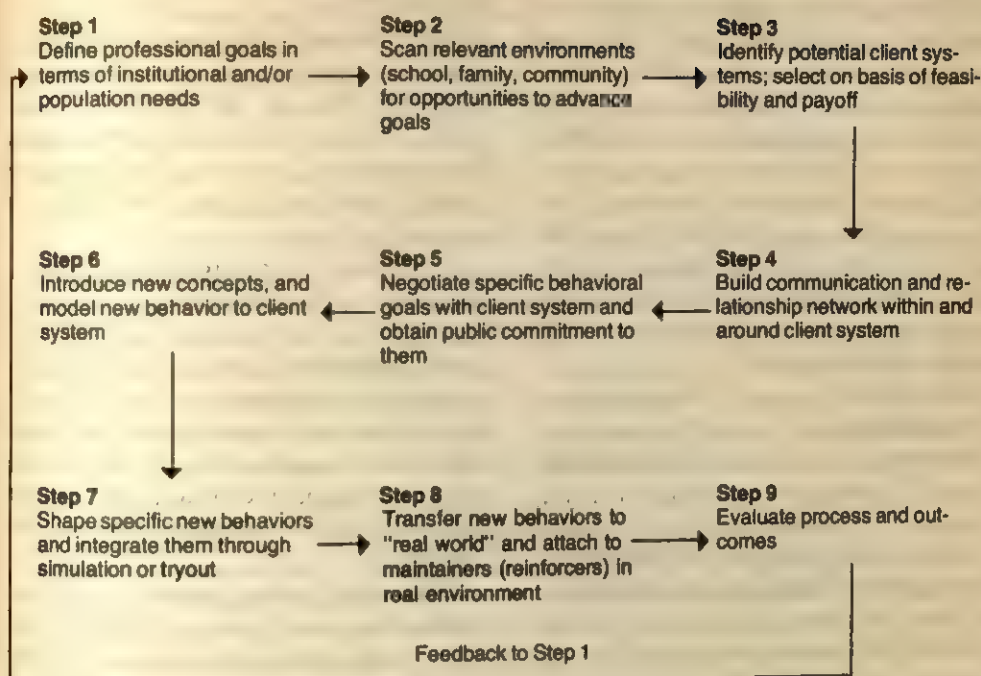
In 1970, a needs assessment was undertaken in the Roseville (Minnesota) School District to assist in the development of objectives for a K-12 career education program (see Figure 1, step 1). Teachers K-12, students in grades 7 through 12, and many community members were contacted and asked to identify their goals, perceptions, and needs in the area of career planning. Of the secondary students, 86 percent desired more help with

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FIGURE 1

# Facilitating Change in Human Systems



educational and career decisions; only 11 percent of the elementary teachers indicated that they had taught units dealing with the world of work.

The needs assessment committee formulated program goals based on their professional perceptions of career development needs as well as on the expressed needs of the sample groups. Stimulation for change from national and state agencies was expressed through the superintendent's formation of the assessment committee, which also gave status and recognition to the assessment program.

The committee decided that the initial client system for the focus of career development would be teachers at the K-6 level. Factors influencing this decision were (a) the needs assessment data, (b) developmental self-concept theoretical models, (c) the greater amount of child-centered orientation in the elementary

staff structures, and (d) the greater probability of obtaining incentive funding. Needs were apparent in all sectors of the school-community population, but the probability of success seemed greatest in the elementary setting.

## First Steps

A K-6 career development pilot project was funded on a three-year basis through federal and state resources. The development of the pilot project and the project team represented the outcome of the environmental scanning process (Figure 1, step 2). This initial team, or support system, included three elementary teachers representing grades K-2, 3-4, and 5-6; a counselor; an evaluator; a media specialist; a librarian; an outside consultant from the University of Minnesota; and the district director of career education. This support system represented a slice of the total target popula-

tion, which contained people with a variety of special skills, resources, and positions.

The pilot project staff developed a set of instructional objectives and curriculum materials that were field-tested and revised for local use. The instructional objectives were based heavily on child development and career development theory and research. The concept of a broad perspective on career, self-development, values, and decision making received undisputed support within the project team but became very challenging in terms of demonstrating measurable outcomes.

The following year a client system was identified (Figure 1, step 3) consisting of 60 volunteer teachers, or about 20 percent of the district's elementary teaching faculty. Communications and relationships began through a workshop conducted by the pilot project staff (Figure 1, step 4) during classroom released time. In the course of the workshop, the teachers developed an interest in making a commitment to the five basic project objectives (Figure 1, step 5), and new ideas and materials were shared (Figure 1, step 6). When the teaching processes involved new teacher behaviors, the pilot project staff modeled them. Many of the career development concepts were very compatible with traditional goals of elementary education, and the career development guides merely enriched the ongoing curriculum; however, emphasis on life style interviewing, values development, interpersonal skill development, and self-concept implementation all made demands for new instructional skills on the part of most of the elementary staff involved.

The staff spent a year with the initial group, working on the processes of communication, relationship development, and presentation and modeling of the new ideas and skills (Figure 1, steps 4, 5, and 6). In the third year, the same steps were repeated for the entire origi-

nal group, additional resource people having joined the project in the second year.

### Procedures

Before the staff attempted to influence teachers' commitment to the new approaches through the inservice workshops, the pilot teachers field-tested all the materials in their own classrooms and revised them to sharpen their focus on project objectives.

A multimedia presentation was used to stimulate staff motivation as well as community involvement, which was partly reflected in the formation of a community resource directory of speakers, persons to be interviewed, and field trips. The considerable use of community resource people broadened both the scope and the support base of the project.

The pilot project team worked together very closely, thus providing themselves with an ongoing support system. The inservice program drew heavily on small group interaction between the three project teachers and the larger client groups of teachers. This interaction permitted two-way communication, trust building, and negotiation of specific applications as well as making possible presentation, modeling, and shaping of new ideas and techniques. Besides the small group discussions, the program components included mini-lectures on the rationale for career development, sample programs, simulation of a classroom values exercise, and a career lifeline activity for the teachers.

The development of locally adapted curriculum materials made it easy for teachers to transfer and integrate their new skills into their own teaching situations (Figure 1, steps 7 and 8). In looking at potential incentives for teachers to participate in inservice activities designed to change teaching techniques, the staff emphasized increasing teacher effectiveness and career satisfaction.



Another very helpful incentive was the released classroom time. The overall reaction to the inservice program was very positive; 97 percent of the teachers expressed satisfaction, 70 percent indicating that they would try out some career development activities.

### Evaluation

By the end of the second year of the project, evaluation data were beginning to become available for feedback into the process (Figure 1, step 9). The evaluation model emphasized the systematic gathering of information for the purpose of program improvement. Instruments for recording activities and measuring process and outcome variables were developed within the team structure to insure that they were tightly focused on local needs and to minimize external threat. The measurement of change in terms of student outcomes (Benson 1973) for the first year had indicated only very limited evidence of student growth. The instrumentation and treatment procedures were therefore modified, and in the second year, students in the three pilot classrooms demonstrated higher scores on the five career maturity measures.

Student outcome measurement for the students of the 60 teachers participating in the inservice program for the second year, however, did not show significant gains. Teacher logs of career education activities indicated that a pattern of systematic activities with a balance between instructional planning and classroom time devoted to career development correlated positively with student outcomes, but little evidence was found to support a relationship between increased total classroom time spent on career development and student outcomes. On the basis of this information, the inservice program and the curriculum materials were again modified for use in the third year by the remaining elementary teachers. The evaluation in-

formation was also used to redefine the general goals and strategies of the program, that is, the processes identified in steps 1, 2, and 3 of Figure 1.

While most of the teachers were trying out more career development activities in their classrooms, the approaches of the elementary curriculum made it difficult to determine specific outcomes. It is difficult to quantify the excitement of first graders listening to and questioning a fire fighter about tools, uniforms, qualifications, interests, and job satisfactions or the reactions of fifth graders to sex-role stereotyping in the United States and Russia. In both of these examples, the focus of follow-up activities was on personal meanings to students in their current thinking about themselves.

### Expansion Decisions

The lack of evidence supporting positive changes in student outcomes at the elementary level led to the decision to use a more focused approach in expanding the program to the junior and senior high levels. It was decided to focus the intervention around specific career development objectives, specific departments, and specific individuals rather than on all career development objectives and all teachers. This decision was based on considerations of the feasibility and probabilities of success.

A junior high science department created career development curriculum materials focusing on occupational awareness. A junior high English curriculum team selected, from the elementary program, instructional objectives that could be successfully expanded in the secondary curriculum. Both of these curriculums have received positive evaluations from teachers, students, and parents. Building on the successful elements of the elementary and pilot secondary programs, a team of art and a team of foreign language teachers have been writing and field-testing career de-

velopment mini-units at the junior and senior high levels. In order to maintain the momentum of success, each of the secondary pilot curriculum projects is field-tested and revised by interested teachers. Each pilot curriculum team is responsible for departmental inservice programs.

Counselors are members of each pilot curriculum team, and they coordinate efforts and facilitate curriculum articulation with a student-centered monitoring program. The students become increasingly involved over the K-12 age span in developing their own career development competence. The monitoring processes that are being piloted open student personnel files and include inservice programs for teachers focusing on methods of observing, interviewing, and reporting student progress in the mastering of developmental career tasks.

## RETROSPECTION

The Roseville career development project has been described and analyzed in terms of organizational change process and the "map" afforded by the systematic eclectic model. The model was not available for use during the actual planning and implementation of the project, although many of the sources of gain represented were built into its operation. In retrospect, several major advantages could have accrued to the project if a formal change process model had been available.

For example, the rapid expansion of the program in both the second and third years was probably unwise and certainly did not produce the same student outcome gains that were demonstrated in the three pilot project classrooms. Even though much attention was given to communication and relationship building with teachers in the inservice program, the time was not adequate. Teachers' commitments to the program varied considerably, and it was evident

that the effectiveness of the teaching procedures and curriculum materials suffered in the rapid expansion of the program.

More careful and conscious attention to the processes involved (steps 4 through 8) might have resulted in the decision to build more time and power into those processes by restricting the rate of expansion of the program. For example, the need for teachers and principals to be involved in the support teams in each elementary building to maintain and revise the program is becoming increasingly obvious, as is the need for providing ongoing incentives for staff growth and involvement.

## CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Implementing career development programs requires a focus of effort and a precision in planning. In activities that involve the time and energy of many people and cut across many disciplines and personnel, it is essential that a base of demonstrated success be established to provide credibility for future programs. Like all organizational changes, career development programs generate resistance. Changes in teaching procedures and curriculum guides produce tension and anxiety in some people. Innovations always carry with them the risk of failure and the resulting disappointment and loss of esteem.

Since career development focuses on a broad range of objectives along the entire developmental time span, these objectives require large-scale organizational changes for their effective accomplishment. Guidance personnel in various settings may wish to consider the career development needs of their clients as well as those of themselves and other staff members. Community and governmental agencies, churches, and business and industry have client and staff groups that might be served best by

organizational changes. Facilitating changes in organizations is not easy, but then neither is one-to-one counseling. The personal rewards from program development may at times be more indirect and ambiguous, but the long-term outcomes may be much greater. ■

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The terms *career education* and *career counseling* have been heard in educational and industrial placement offices for some time. Many definitions of these concepts have been expressed. Individuals in industry agree that career education is more than K-12 exposure; general opinion, however, tends to equate career education with job-related knowledge. Good career counseling should enable young people to prepare themselves, while still in school, to meet the needs of the work world and thus find a good fit between themselves and openings in industry. To help accomplish this goal, the trend has been to have industrial representatives take part in school career fairs to offer information to teachers and students.

While some industrial representatives recognize that the total concept of education for life (career education) should relate to more than education for work, few have been able to design programs that effectively cover the employment aspect of career education within their own work forces. Evidence of this is the lack of ongoing programs to counsel present employees on career paths. There have been three obstacles to the installation of career counseling: (a) the supervisor's genuine concern that employees will be disappointed if the company is unable to provide the desired promotional opportunity to those who want a particular career path, (b) the supervisor's lack of training in career counseling and the employee's general dissatisfaction with supervisor-employee career discussions, and (c) concern that productivity will suffer as turnover increases due to employees exploring new careers. Each of these concerns provides a threat to employers who want a satisfied, stable, productive work force.

Unlike supervisors, people in top management are asking how a career counseling program will be helpful to either the employee or the business. Programs are being considered, though not many are operational. Meanwhile, employees continue to ask for formal counseling as they aim for a "better job." Many companies provide employee benefits by means of a tuition refund for the employee who is motivated to continue improving his or her education or skill. Lacking career guidance, however, employees may find it difficult to make best use of this benefit and thereby enhance their earning power. Today's employees, as a group, seem to be more curious, more energetic, and more concerned than their predecessors. They want and need a source of career guidance.

What can be done to ease the concerns of management about providing the counseling needed? How can industry bring management to the realization that an employee who seeks counseling is already somewhat restless and is therefore moving toward changing jobs either within the company or outside it? There are no easy answers, but three indications are clear. First, managers in industry can, through career counseling, bring about a greater use of employee talent. Second, employees who are challenged by increased responsibility will provide a more competent work force. Third, employee satisfaction, and therefore employee productivity, can increase through implementation of career counseling programs.—**Darcy Truax, Honeywell Corporation, Denver, Colorado.**

# Field Testing a Comprehensive Career Guidance Program, K-12

Byron E. McKinnon and G. Brian Jones

Long before career education became a popular theme across the country, the community of Mesa, Arizona, and its school board were pressing the Mesa school system for a greater number and variety of educational alternatives. Our state was one of the first to pass legislation for funding career education. We had developed a high degree of readiness and were therefore one of the first school systems to explore aggressively the possibilities offered by career education. We became one of the first to commit a total school district (28,000 students K-12) to career education concepts. In 1971 Mesa applied and was selected through the Office of Education as one of the six sites to design and implement prototype programs for national dissemination. We also applied for and received substantial state funds for similar purposes.

Great, but where was guidance in all of this? Its visibility and influence at either the state or national level was, in our opinion, negligible. It was either ignored or deemed to be there—ready to do its thing when called on. For whatever reasons, guidance practitioners were not making significant input into the evolving career education structure. Guidance, it seemed, was no longer considered a viable resource for educational reform.

All of this caused some trauma in Mesa's guidance department. In our growing discomfort, we began to ask ourselves questions about how responsive, efficient, and effective our traditional guidance methodologies were.

How functional were we for all students? Were we spending 90 percent of our time with 10 percent of our students? How did we know that what we were doing had any substantive or lasting impact? How could we create more developmental or preventive programs? How could we put priorities on our time and energy so that we would be doing the right thing at the right time for the right person?

What to do? We could continue with business as usual, or we could seek better ways to do the vital job we had been hired for. We could find ways of adding the guidance influence to what promised to be an idea whose time had come: career education.

## A REORIENTATION OF GUIDANCE

Our first objective was to reduce to manageable size areas for which guidance would accept responsibility. No longer could we accept responsibilities for such a broad spectrum. We felt we had to zero in on the areas of most critical need and then address these areas in such a manner that specified outcomes could be documented. We committed ourselves to a model of accountability based not only

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on guidance activities but also on measurable student outcomes resulting from those activities. Our vehicle was to be a comprehensive career guidance program.

This was no small undertaking, and since we were really not interested in band-aid remedies, we sought additional resources. First, we sought commitment to change. This was reaffirmed from the majority of our 32 full-time counselors and from those at top decision-making levels: When program designs were tried on a small scale and evaluated, we would have support to implement and generalize the change. Second, we sought and received substantial support from our superintendent, our board of education, and the staff of our growing career education project. Third, we needed money. We sought and received grants through Vocational Education Amendments Part C and later Part D. We also applied for and received state-administered Title III monies. Fourth, we sought outside expertise. After looking to local universities and at several research and development centers, we contracted with the American Institutes for Research in Palo Alto, California (Jones et al. 1973). Another very important source of outside help was the expertise of a national advisory committee. These nationally recognized authorities in career guidance brought an important perspective from a national point of view.

Briefly, then, Mesa in the past three years has completed a detailed needs assessment, performed a status assessment of current programs, completed a comparison between the ideal and the current program, designed curriculum development and implementation strategies for program delivery, designed evaluation strategies to determine the extent to which the program delivered its objectives, begun a task analysis to determine competencies required of practitioners, and begun the develop-

ment of a series of competency-based staff development packages. What has emerged is the development and delivery by counselor/teacher teams of important aspects of a comprehensive career guidance program. The program is delivered through the classroom and is an integral part of ongoing curriculum.

### **Needs Assessment for Planning**

We began with a needs assessment. We assessed representative samples, randomly selected, of students in grades 6, 9, and 12, as well as a sample of parents, educators, and other community representatives. A total of approximately 900 students and adults were sampled by Q-sort techniques. Needs were categorized at each level as academic, educational-vocational, interpersonal, or intrapersonal. It was on these validated needs that priorities for design, structure, implementation, and decision making for career guidance interventions were based (Mesa Public Schools 1973).

Some organizing philosophical posture was also necessary to give a general focus to subsequent activities. We felt that this posture should be simple and direct but tentative. The six basic assumptions adopted by consensus from Mesa's counselors were that guidance must (a) help develop and protect individuality, (b) help students become effective problem solvers, (c) be available to all students, (d) be more integrated into the educational process, (e) be developmental as well as prescriptive or remedial, and (f) be measurable in terms of student outcomes.

Our tentative definition of career education was (and is) very broad. Going far beyond the notion of receiving occupational information and getting a job, career education should assist each individual in the total process of becoming. We concluded that career education was comprised essentially of five themes: (a) solving problems (the undergirding of the total program), (b) understanding



self and others, (c) understanding the world, (d) obtaining skills and experience, and (e) achieving identity (the overall outcome). We identified three facets of identity: self, social, and functional.

### **Program Development**

With the needs assessment and a status assessment available, counselors and teachers began the process of changing needs statements to goal statements; writing performance objectives to deliver on the goals; and creating activities to direct students through a series of experiences designed to help them acquire skills to meet their needs (goals). The whole process was then to be evaluated to determine if objectives were met, to assess program effectiveness, to get some feeling about unanticipated side effects, and to obtain some beginning dimensions of cost-benefit ratios.

Although the process described sounds simple enough, it was not. We were asking teachers and counselors to become curriculum developers and to deal in an objective way with the affective domain—a task viewed as formidable by those possessing much greater expertise than we and a task that would have been impossible without district permission to give all counselors the unheard-of luxury of being released from ongoing tasks, full-time, for three consecutive weeks.

### **Pilot Testing, Field Testing, and Implementation**

Some interesting events began to take place at this point; these events, perhaps to even a greater extent than the formal evaluation data, gave us the courage and incentive to go on.

During 1972 and '73, we had done pilot testing and subsequent field testing in one high school English class in which the usual registration had been approximately 200 students. Spring registration for "English and Careers" jumped to

over 650. Word of mouth from students seemed to be validating our needs assessment. We had done a pilot test in one of our junior high social studies classes in December. The following May, students at the 7th grade level were asked to rate the total year's program for personal significance. Approximately 70 percent rated the career guidance units first. In addition, increasing numbers of teachers at the elementary level were requesting classroom material and assistance.

We seemed to be on target. We had begun to meet objectives to a significant degree and felt ready to begin our formal implementation schedule, which called for us to start with grades K, 1, 2, 7, and 10 in 1973-74. Over a three-year period we would add the rest of K-12.

Our implementation strategy was not blanket coverage. A teacher who showed interest received help; teachers, counselors, and students worked together to integrate the career guidance material smoothly into varied courses of study. Since less time was required with a particular teacher, the counselor was free to seek out others and repeat the process.

### **Description of Materials**

Before the actual writing of guidance units began, a suggested format was selected. Each unit was to contain a learner's guide for student use, indicating the unit's intended outcomes; separate student booklets, containing as much of the reading material as possible; and a teacher-counselor booklet. The teacher-counselor booklet included goal statements and performance objectives, time required, necessary materials, enrichment activities, new vocabulary, teacher preparation, answer keys, and salient points to cover.

To date, 24 units K-12 have been completed for general implementation. They not only include dimensions of ability, interest, aptitude, and information; they have equal investment in such personal themes as "Getting in Touch

with My Feelings," "Interpersonal Relationships," "Giving and Receiving Love," "Someone to Talk To in Time of Need," "Friends," and "Decision Making."

## PROGRAM EVALUATION

Five schools were selected for in-depth evaluation: two elementary, two junior highs, and one high school. They received pre-post testing, had control and treatment groups, and were subjected to a more rigorous evaluation design than had ever been attempted before in our guidance programs.

At the elementary level, measurement involved only audiotaped interviews and stories presented on a post-treatment basis to experimental and control students. At the junior and senior high levels, similar criterion-referenced tests, but stressing pencil-and-paper responses, were administered before and after participation in programs. These same students recorded their attitudes and opinions regarding program goals: whether or not they felt schools should help students achieve such goals and how they felt about the usefulness, level of interest, and reading level of program materials and activities. Because of the young age of the elementary school children involved, no attempt was made to collect such reactions from them; however, school staff were asked to express reactions on these issues. Finally, parents of junior high students indicated whether they agreed with the program goals and the schools' focusing on them, whether they felt their children had benefited from the program, and, if so, what they thought the student behavior changes were. Only at the junior high level were counselors successful in collecting student data from demonstration and comparison (no special treatment) schools.

The resulting data provided Mesa counselors with important information for making future program decisions.

The most encouraging results were obtained at the junior high level. In a demonstration school in which counselors and teachers had worked hard to administer the new program, student achievement on six of the eight objectives was higher on tests of statistical significance than was that produced by control students in that school and a comparable school. High percentages of students, staff, and parents in this school felt that the program was helpful; however, parents were not yet able to substantiate this with behavioral examples. The units in the program were seen by students and teachers as interesting and valuable.

## CURRENT PROGRAM STATUS

In summary, then, we have completed 24 units—five at the elementary level, nine at the junior high level, and ten at senior high levels. These units represent over 250 hours of instructional material. We have in draft stage five competency-based training packages, of up to 20 instructional hours each, for guidance practitioners (Mesa Public Schools 1974).

In its first year of implementation, the overall program has involved all of our 32 counselors, 97 teachers, and well over 7,000 students K-12. Some aspects of the program have been implemented in all secondary and junior high schools and in 13 out of 28 elementary schools. While our first efforts have been designed primarily for classroom delivery, we do not intend that the classroom necessarily be our primary delivery mode. We define a unit as a series of experiences designed to meet a goal. This is true for one-to-one or small group interaction and in formal or informal settings. It may or may not be didactic in design. Our aim is to identify alternative strategies for bringing career guidance to all students by whatever means we can find or develop. We are also devoting substantive effort toward developing a

comprehensive placement program and a computer-assisted occupational information system.

It is our firm belief that we will continue in the direction we have begun. We doubt that Mesa's guidance department will ever go back to the old days of contingency management. What we have experienced during the past three years has been a mixture of pain and exhilaration. We are not sure we would want to start again at the beginning. We are sure we don't want to go back. ■

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# Update: The Developmental Career Guidance Project

George E. Leonard and Thelma J. Vriend

The Developmental Career Guidance Project has had its tenth birthday. Initiated in 1964 in Detroit, Michigan, in order to provide improved career guidance for disadvantaged youth, the DCGP is a forerunner of developmental programs in career guidance and is one of the few programs to have accumulated evaluative data that provide support for program implementation and expansion. It has developed from a fledgling pilot project to an expanded, stable K-12 program in the Detroit public schools. Its experiential base of change and growth has served to nourish the project itself as well as serving as a model for other programs. The project began in six schools: three elementary that fed into two junior highs that fed into a senior high. Today the project is operative in 34 elementary and secondary schools serving some 37,000 students. The population is "disadvantaged" in that all participating schools must qualify under the standards of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

The DCGP has demonstrated that youth from lower socioeconomic areas can be assisted in developing realistic occupational aspirations. It has further demonstrated that the occupational and

educational aspirations of these youth can be improved through their developing more positive self-concepts. The DCGP has also affected the motivational atmosphere in each project school by providing occupationally oriented experiences for students. Career guidance has been extended through curricular innovations and the development of a program that permeates the entire school and community.

The DCGP focuses on the developmental aspects of career knowledge, aspiration, choice, and planning and on the ever-changing nature of society. Although job placement is not a main emphasis, DCGP staff members at senior high schools refer students to cooperating industries and businesses for employment.

## PROJECT DEVELOPMENT

At the beginning, the project members undertook an extensive review of the literature related to counseling and guidance of disadvantaged youth. They developed several premises as being relevant for ethnic minorities, low income students, and non-college-bound youth. The premises formed the basis for project activities. They are: (a) there exists a clear and urgent need for compensatory counseling and guidance for disadvantaged youth, (b) counseling must focus on the emerging self-concept of the adolescent so that he or she gains a sense of

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identity, (c) guidance of disadvantaged youth must be concrete and must focus on aiding the adolescent to become aware of and take advantage of available opportunities, (d) effective counseling can assist young people to develop coping behaviors, (e) group counseling is an especially powerful method of helping disadvantaged adolescents cope with problems of everyday living, (f) standardized test scores of inner-city youth must be interpreted with caution, (g) families of students must be involved in the career activities, and (h) the understanding counselor has a unique opportunity to serve as a role model and a reinforcing agent in the life of the disadvantaged youth.

A cooperative relationship between Wayne State University's Department of Educational Guidance and Counseling and the Detroit public schools facilitates the use of the DCGP as a training program for school personnel and permits the DCGP staff to do action research in the process of evaluating project activities.

### **STAFF, FACILITIES, AND SUPPORT**

At each school, the DCGP has a guidance team consisting of a guidance consultant and a community aide. At several senior high schools there are two professional guidance consultants (the title differentiates them from the regular school counselors), one community aide, and a student clerical assistant. All guidance consultants hold masters' degrees and are certified as counselors in Michigan. Community aides provide clerical assistance, work with students and parents, assess community resources, and assist the guidance consultants in various settings.

The DCGP center at each school is in a convenient location, making it easy for students to set up appointments with the

career guidance consultants. It accommodates individual and small group counseling sessions and the abundance of career and educational materials that have been accumulated. A key resource for the DCGP is a set of career guidance manuals that elementary and secondary teachers use as guides to integrating career guidance with subject matter in the classroom.

### **STUDENT ACTIVITIES**

In addition to helping teachers integrate career guidance and action-oriented experiences into classroom situations, each DCGP team conducts individual and small group counseling sessions in which students obtain information about occupations, colleges, and jobs and receive help with school and employment applications and interviews. In individual sessions, standardized tests and results are also discussed. Dissemination of career information is achieved through individual consultations, visits to classes by guidance consultants, audiovisual and printed materials, role playing, career games, bulletin boards, and school assemblies. Field trips to cooperating businesses and industries (25 per school each school year) and a year-round series of speakers from various occupations help broaden students' perceptions of the world of work and careers. Consultants and community aides work in liaison roles with community agencies and neighborhood organizations to help coordinate school and community efforts and services.

Guidance activities are implemented with students from kindergarten through the 12th grade and are tailored to the needs of students and the different stages of their development. The activities help students understand themselves, accept their strengths and liabilities, and develop a wholesome attitude toward themselves.

## SPECIAL FACTORS

Parent involvement in the DCGP is substantial. The major goal of the community aides is to reach parents who can increase the impact of students' career development. Parents accompany every DCGP field trip so that they too can be exposed to the changing world of work. Community aides are responsible for parents becoming active participants in many of the events planned during the school year.

The School Guidance Committee in each school meets monthly to discuss concerns, future events, and student progress. The Citizens Advisory Committee of each school meets with student representatives periodically. A weekly "Parent Discussion Series" for each school and a monthly meeting for clusters of three schools across the elementary, junior, and senior high levels have been organized to resolve problems.

## EVALUATION

The DCGP staff has carried on a program of continuous evaluation from the inception of the project. Evaluation has focused on students, parents, faculty, and community participants. Data indicate the following gains: (a) the level of occupational-educational aspiration of students in DCGP schools has increased to a significantly greater extent than that of students in control schools; (b) DCGP students have demonstrated significantly greater growth in regard to occupational knowledge and planning than have students in control schools; (c) DCGP students from grades two through six have equaled or exceeded national norm achievement test gains; (d) DCGP high school students have demonstrated changes in occupational values, now valuing "a career where I can get ahead" over money (there was no change with control students); (e) a DCGP high school has reduced its dropout rate 12.01

percent from 1965 to 1972; (f) a six-month follow-up study of graduates indicated a significantly greater number of DCGP graduates demonstrating mature coping behaviors (Giroux 1970; Leonard 1971; McCarthy 1972).

A parent and faculty survey was administered to a random sample of 949 parents and faculty of DCGP schools in 1972. One hundred percent stated that they wanted the project continued in their schools and felt that it was providing valuable services (McCarthy 1972). Further, the conclusion of an extensive independent study conducted by the Research and Development Division of the Detroit Public Schools, after the researchers examined school records, interviewed parents and students, surveyed cooperating employers, and interviewed administrators, was that the project was accomplishing all of its primary objectives (McCarthy 1972).

## EPILOGUE

Having been involved in the Developmental Career Guidance Project for nearly ten years, we wish to make a few observations. First, a program must be soundly conceived and organized before implementation can begin. Too often programs begin on a "crash" basis, soon flounder, and are discarded. This is a clear and present danger in these days of career education. Second, no program is better than the quality of the staff involved. Efforts have to be made to obtain committed, dedicated individuals to work with any project, and any program should allow for and encourage creativity on the part of the staff. A visitor to a number of DCGP schools would see that the total program differs in each, although the basic structure is the same. Third, community involvement is critical if any career education or career guidance program is to succeed. The DCGP paraprofessional community aides,



whose major responsibility is working with parents, community agencies, and employers, have contributed immeasurably to the success of the project. Finally, leadership and continuous inservice training must be a key part of any effective program. This leadership must come from individuals who are knowledgeable in and committed to career guidance. ■

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The main emphasis in career education to date has been to provide individuals with more exposure to work experience and with information about specific occupations. In other words, career education has emphasized the experiential, or "doing," and the factual, or "knowing," aspects of learning. However, specialists from many disciplines who are involved in career education are now taking a different view: that successful career education also requires the development of affective learning. In the May 1974 issue of this journal, Healy identified some of the attitudes and skills related to this "feeling" kind of learning: the development of a sense of agency, the development of a feeling of self-esteem, the ability to manage time well, and the ability to cooperate with others. Effective career education, then, requires instructional materials, including television programming, that integrate the "knowing," "doing," and "feeling" aspects of learning.

In the past, television instruction in career education also has emphasized the "knowing" aspect of learning. Instructional television has introduced individuals to the world of the stockbroker, the engineer, and the laborer in more immediate and intimate ways than would have been possible through tours or classroom speakers. But if integration of the "knowing" with the "feeling" and "doing" aspects of learning is a major objective of career education—and I firmly believe it should be—then the potential of instructional television has not yet been fully tapped.

Although instructional television cannot by itself respond directly to the need for "doing" kinds of career-related activities, it can provide instruction in the "feeling" as well as the "knowing" realms. For example, television series in career education might emphasize the person rather than the job description and help individuals to understand themselves and others through work. In designing such series, guidance specialists, because of their orientation in affective learning, can make a significant contribution. Moreover, they can provide supplementary activities that will help individuals develop the attitudes and skills they need to function successfully.

The potential of instructional television for career education is beginning to be realized through television programming and related materials that integrate the three realms of learning. More such programs and materials are needed, and the role of guidance specialists is crucial in designing them as well as in assuring that they are fully utilized.—

**Robert W. Fox, Agency for Instructional Television, Bloomington, Indiana.**

# A Systematic Career Development Program in a Liberal Arts College

Richard J. Thoni and Patricia M. Olsson

Commitment to one life style over another is a "super decision," according to *Future Shock*. At a time when many students are questioning the practical value of higher education, a central goal of a liberal arts education must be the preparation of the individual for a satisfying life style beyond the college experience. At Augsburg, a liberal arts college in Minneapolis with 1,700 students, the counseling staff had come to view life style preparation and career development as one and the same and, as a result, decided to take a hard look at career needs of Augsburg students.

In separate surveys of high school seniors, present Augsburg students, and Augsburg alumni, all three groups ranked career and human development goals highest; however, the latter two groups ranked the accomplishment of these goals low in degree of satisfaction. It was clear that a more comprehensive approach to career growth was needed.

## THE ASSUMPTIONS

Although it was clear that career development concerns were uppermost in the minds of Augsburg students, what was not so clear was what exactly should be done. As Myers (1971) and others

have noted, very little career development literature has been directed toward the college years. It was apparent that the Augsburg staff would have to piece together its own goals and principles for a career development program.

Career and liberal arts have not always dwelt comfortably together. Career smacks of "vocationalism" to some faculty and staff, and it was therefore necessary that the program planners consider the unique nature of career development in a liberal arts college. The following assumptions were made: (a) *career* is broadly defined to include those aspects of development that contribute to the individual's life style; (b) career development is a significant part of human development and is closely related to the formation and implementation of one's self-concept (Super et al. 1963); (c) there is no conflict between career development goals and the goals of a liberal arts education—a liberal arts view that has long been held is that education should promote the growth and development of the student (Heath 1968); (d) career growth is a sequential developmental process, in that it may be accomplished through a series of stages or progressive developmental tasks; (e) in order to grow and develop, the student must be challenged to do so (Sanford 1966)—a large part of a career development program is need creation rather than need reduction; (f) since change is the only certainty in preparing the student to participate in a work society, planning for flexibility is essential (Super 1967).

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## A HIERARCHICAL PROGRAM OF CAREER GROWTH

With these assumptions, the program planners set out to construct a program of career growth during the college years. They were faced with two options: They could either create a totally new structure, or they could use existing elements and "fill in the gaps" (Parker 1974). Since their goal was to integrate career development with the total educational program, they selected the latter option. Their task thus became one of making the career development process explicit for the college. They had to outline an appropriate theoretical base for the program, link existing elements to that description, and then create new programs where there were obvious needs. (A schematic presentation of the seven stages of career development described below is available from the authors.)

### Stage 1: Building Expectations

This is a preliminary stage, based on the need in decision theory to specify the problem or concern. It is important that any educational institution, especially a liberal arts college, clarify for the entering student what it can realistically offer in terms of career preparation. This stage is also the first step in need creation, since it makes students aware of the necessity of working on their own career development. To help students preassess the experiences they can expect to find at Augsburg, career action plans are available: A structured weekend trip to the city offers prospective students an educational experience in an urban setting; freshman summer orientation conducted by faculty, staff, and upperclass student advisors provides parents and students with an intensive day and a half of preregistration, orientation, and peer relationship building; preview courses in

an experimental program allow high school seniors to take college courses.

### Stage 2: Self-Assessment

Because the career development process is closely related to the clarification of self-concept (Super et al. 1963), the developmental task of this stage is that students be able to discover and express career-relevant characteristics about themselves. Life Planning Laboratories at Augsburg are three-hour group sessions directed toward helping students assess their needs, values, aptitudes, vocational interests, and vocational aspirations. The sessions include such exercises as lifeline, stripping of roles, preferred life style fantasy, and goal setting. A new program is the Human Development Colloquium, which focuses on personal growth themes and operates on the basis of mini-courses. A career development theme, for example, focuses on how to use the liberal arts experience to plan and implement a satisfying personal life style. Students maintain a four-year portfolio that includes self-assessment feedback, an action plan for the college experience, and work samples and references.

### Stage 3: Exploration

As students become aware of the need to make career decisions, they begin the process of differentiation (Tiedeman 1963). At this time it is important that they be able to consider a number of different goals and alternatives. Their exposure to a wide range of disciplines and role models is most desirable during this time. The liberal arts curriculum should be the primary vehicle for exploring and examining personal life style. Augsburg's cooperative learning classes are one unique way in which students may confront—through the curriculum—life styles that are greatly different from their own. In this program, faculty



teach courses at retirement homes, prisons, halfway houses, mental hospitals, and homes for the handicapped. Independent study, one-month interim courses, and study abroad are other examples of vehicles for exploration through the curriculum. Staff from the counseling center often serve as sponsors for such individualized courses.

#### **Stage 4: Formation of Tentative Career Goals**

After students have explored a number of potential alternatives, the first stage of crystallization occurs (Ginzberg et al. 1951). Using the decision making strategy of forecasting the consequences of various alternatives and testing them against an emerging self-concept, students begin to make a number of hypotheses about career. A seminar called the Career Exploration Encounter helps students identify possible career interests, builds career testing behaviors, and gives students a half-day exploration experience with professionals in the city. Some students change majors after seeing it "like it is"; others are more deeply motivated to pursue the field they have chosen.

#### **Stage 5: Reality Testing**

It would be easy for students to become satisfied with career plans based on unrealistic projections about the world of work. Reality testing is a crucial step in the further specification of career goals and is often best accomplished through actual involvement in the work experience (Hansen 1972). Though this element is often lacking in a liberal arts college, it is an essential one: Further career growth might be impeded until students can test themselves and their own reactions in a practical work setting. Education and social work are examples of academic majors that traditionally have included involvement in an actual work

setting: in education, student teaching; in social work, field experience. For other majors, Augsburg has an internship program that offers a part-time or full-time experience for course credit and, in most cases, a stipend.

#### **Stage 6: Access into the World of Work**

This stage involves implementation of career plans and entry into the world of work. The emphasis is on helping students gain skills that would enable them to "sell" themselves to potential employers. The task is to aid students in making realistic plans to meet the various life style needs they have identified. In addition to providing regular placement services, Augsburg provides seniors with concrete assistance in preparing for exit from college. "Selling self" skills are stressed through seminars that include live interviews, mock interviews, and interaction with personnel directors. Though linkages between prospective employers and students are actively promoted, the ultimate responsibility for finding a job or a graduate position belongs to the student.

#### **Stage 7: Reentry into College**

Career development for the returning student must also be taken into account. The Augsburg program emphasizes career development as a lifelong interaction between personal growth and life style and therefore recognizes that reassessment, retraining, and continuing education may occur at any point in an individual's work life. The individual's new examination of self and career may result in a totally different integration of the preceding stages of career growth. The New Dimensions Program is designed for students who are not of traditional college age—adults whose education has been interrupted and who now

wish to reenter formal education. The program helps ease their way back into the college setting by offering admissions counseling, simplified registration, and counseling for career exploration.

## EVALUATION

Initial evaluations of Augsburg's career development program have focused on student response to the new activities and programs conducted by the staff. Students generally have been most excited about those programs dealing directly with the world of work. As a result of the Career Exploration Encounter, for example, approximately 75 students spent time on the job with workers in the students' potential career fields. Evaluations in the near future will be directed toward more objective measures of career maturity, sense of personal control, and satisfaction with career choices.

The Augsburg staff members themselves have become excited in dealing with career growth as a significant and integrated part of human development on the college level. They have found increasing evidence that important developmental tasks can be accomplished through a planned program of career

growth within the liberal arts context. ■

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# Meeting Career Needs in Two-Year Institutions

Michael Wollman, Diane A. Johnson, and James E. Bottoms

Efforts are now under way to meet the needs of the diverse new clientele in postsecondary education. In this article the authors describe a few of these efforts in community colleges and vocational-technical institutes.

## THE GENERAL COLLEGE

In a recent survey of two-year college students, Wollman (1973) found that 63 percent were either not at all satisfied with the way they had planned their occupational choice or were fairly satisfied but felt they still needed some planning. Sixty-eight percent reported that they would participate in a career guidance program if it were offered. To begin to meet these needs, two two-year colleges, the General College at the University of Minnesota and Metropolitan Community College in Minneapolis, initiated a number of career development curriculum interventions. The strategies they used represent only a few of the possible and desirable strategies that can be used in addition to those typically used in a counseling center.

Fourteen occupationally undecided General College students participated in a two-credit Career Planning Seminar that met one hour each week for 11 weeks. The primary aim of the seminar was to help these students become aware of a decision making process that they could apply directly to their own career-related concerns. The seminar was designed to help them specify several occupational areas of interest and evaluate their chances of success in those occupational areas.

A unique feature of the Career Planning Seminar was the use of the "Programmed Guide to Career Decision-Making." Each student received a package of 15 career exploration units based on a decision making approach (Carney, Fuhrman & Shepherd 1970; Magoon 1969). The units, mostly in printed form, allowed students to work on their educational and occupational concerns individually at home or in the classroom.

The first week of the career exploration package described how students could apply a five-step decision-making process to their educational and occupational concerns. The first step, "Identifying the Problem," was stated as follows: "How do I go about the process of learning more about myself and the world of work so that I can make sound occupational and educational plans?" Weeks two through seven focused on the second step, "Gathering Appropriate Information." One of the most important sections, and by far the longest, this segment included six self-clarification units and

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three units designed to help students better understand the world of work. By the eighth week students were ready to move on to the third step, "Exploring Alternatives and Selecting a Tentative Choice." The goal of this step was for students to synthesize and weigh all the information they had gathered and make a tentative decision about two occupations. The fourth step, "Implementing a Choice," was introduced to the students during the ninth week. In this stage the individual developed an action plan that specified the steps involved in implementing the tentative occupational choice. The final step, "Evaluating the Decision Periodically," was covered in the tenth week. This step was a reminder to reevaluate periodically the tentative occupational choice to determine if a change of plans was warranted.

A pretest and a posttest questionnaire were designed to evaluate the effectiveness of the Career Planning Seminar (Wollman 1974b); students completed these questionnaires during the first and last meetings of the seminar. Summarizing the findings, (a) students' knowledge about sources of career counseling, internships, occupational information, and educational programs substantially increased; (b) each student reported an increase in the ability to gather and analyze information about occupations; (c) each student felt more competent in analyzing his or her compatibility with occupations; and (d) 9 of the 14 students reported that as a result of the seminar they had increased the number of occupations they would consider as occupational possibilities.

A second career development intervention at the General College was a package of career exploration units (Wollman 1974a) that can easily be adapted to any college course. Teachers of psychology, English, and history can incorporate the career exploration units into their classes with only minimal changes in the course structure. In fact,

the teacher can describe the career exploration package and distribute the material in only one class meeting. Since the units are self-instructional, supervision is unnecessary, and students work entirely outside the classroom.

## **METROPOLITAN COMMUNITY COLLEGE**

Curriculum interventions at Metropolitan Community College have taken the form of three courses offered for elective credit: Career and Personal Assessment, Women in the '70s, and Occupational Skills Development.

Because individuals are constantly growing and changing throughout their lives, the Career and Personal Assessment class emphasizes a process of self-examination, information gathering and analysis, and personal planning that, once learned, can be repeated when new decisions are necessary. Personal assessment, the first unit, focuses on helping individuals understand themselves and others. The second unit, on understanding the world of work, emphasizes an awareness of broad occupational groups, the implications of rapid technological and social change, labor market trends, and the requirements of jobs in terms of personal skills, interests, and values. Career planning skills, the third unit, concentrates on the decision making process. Personal and career data gathered in the earlier units are integrated in the form of a "personal strategy," which describes specific steps the individual would need to take this week, this month, this year, and within five years to achieve entry level in his or her chosen field. Research results evaluating both the effectiveness of the course and student reaction to it are expected to be available by June 1975.

As a next step in their career plan, students may take the course Women in the '70s or move directly into the Occupational Skills Development class. Women in the '70s is a four-credit class

that concentrates on women and work from a feminist perspective. Some of the topics covered are: the position of women in the work force, the social mythology of the inferiority of women, how to file discrimination charges, and socialization to develop individual differences rather than to reinforce rigid sex roles. Occupational Skills Development is a two-credit course, usually taken after either of the other two courses, that helps students "sell themselves" to an employer. Topics covered include: resumé writing, interview "survival" techniques, letters of application and acceptance, labor market trends, and types of placement agencies.

## **VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL SCHOOLS**

To assist individuals in achieving their career objectives through Georgia's post-secondary vocational-technical schools, career guidance activities have been organized around the decision making phases of whether to attend school, what curriculum to enter, how to follow through on decisions made, and how to move successfully to the next step.

### **Whether or Not to Attend School**

To assist potential students in considering and either selecting or rejecting the vocational-technical school as a means to achieve their tentative career objectives, the most frequent activities carried on by guidance workers are (a) providing information about the school program to those persons (school counselors, teachers, employment service counselors) who would be assisting individuals in looking at different educational alternatives; (b) scheduling and conducting tours for secondary students, counselors, teachers, principals, civic groups, parents, and others; (c) providing junior high students with direct observational experiences in the several occupational areas for which training is offered; (d)

conducting an open house for potential students and their parents; (e) visiting out-of-school youth and encouraging them to examine vocational-technical education; and (f) developing and distributing printed information about the school, its offerings, its students, and its graduates.

### **What Curriculum to Enter**

Through a series of preadmission and postadmission guidance activities, persons considering enrollment are assisted in clarifying their goals and making a decision about an occupational program to enter. Preadmission activities include (a) administering and interpreting aptitude and interest tests to all applicants and (b) providing individual and group career counseling to persons who are uncertain about their tentative career plans and decisions, as well as arranging for them to talk with students, instructors, and graduates from different programs. Postadmission guidance activities involve (a) orienting students to each occupational area; (b) providing counseling sessions for students who may have made the wrong choice or who are failing at the end of the first quarter; (c) helping instructors, during the first quarter, to design experiences that will assist students in understanding themselves better in relation to their tentative career goals and occupational area; and (d) suggesting to instructional staff curriculum modifications to help certain students achieve their career goals.

### **How to Follow Through on Decisions**

Students need assistance in working through day-to-day problems in order to achieve their stated career objectives and, in some instances, to either reconfirm or reject their earlier occupational decision. Toward this end, several guidance activities are provided: (a) group guidance sessions, conducted by teachers and guidance workers, on topics such as how to advance in school by or-

ganizing and planning, how to get along with others, how to explore a career field, and how to advance on a job; (b) counseling sessions for students who have learning difficulties, financial problems, or difficulties in interpersonal relationships; (c) regular visits by guidance workers to laboratory areas to meet and talk with students; and (d) routine conferences between guidance workers and instructors to explore ways in which the curriculum and school organization could be changed to meet student needs.

### How to Move to the Next Step

Through several guidance activities, students are counseled in relating their understandings of their own abilities, values, and interests to their immediate, intermediate, and long-range career goals and plans. Among these activities is TECHDAYS, a program in which employers throughout the state are invited into each school for the purpose of interviewing upcoming graduates who are interested in their companies. Preceding TECHDAYS is a series of group guidance classes designed to help students clarify what they are looking for in a job, study the companies participating in TECHDAYS, and develop job seeking skills. Employers throughout the state receive information regarding the number of graduates from each school by occupational field. Students are provided with follow-up information on companies employing former students and on former students' earnings, views

of their jobs, and views of opportunities for advancement.

Other transitional activities of the guidance workers include providing job development and making personal contact with employers to assist in the placement of disadvantaged and handicapped students. In addition, the guidance workers continue to provide the counseling necessary to insure students' success and upward mobility in the early phases of employment.

Although there does not appear to be a comprehensive career guidance program for the two-year institution, the illustrative strategies described in this article might represent beginning attempts to establish the kinds of systematic programs needed. ■

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The rapidly changing profile of the American woman must lead us to serious reconsideration of her occupational as well as her intellectual and emotional needs. Recent trends indicate that women are living longer, marrying later, postponing maternity, having fewer children, more often having no children, heading more households, and living alone more often. These demographic trends point to the increased and urgent need for occupational roles that can offer realistic economic returns in addition to intrinsic gratification and meaning.

One way of conceptualizing roles is in terms of direct achievement and indirect, or vicarious, achievement dimensions. Direct achievement roles involve a direct and bold confrontation with one's environment; they require individuals to mold and sometimes conquer their environment. Direct achievers act as agents in their own behalf. They take pleasure from their own success and measure their success in terms of their own accomplishments. Examples of direct achievement roles are those of surgeon, pilot, politician, and carpenter. Indirect, or vicarious, achievement roles require individuals to approach their environment through relationships with other people. Vicarious achievement roles are enabling, facilitating, and backup roles. Vicarious achievers measure their own success in terms of the accomplishments of other individuals with whom they have either a personal or professional relationship. And they take primary pleasure in the accomplishments of others with whom they identify.

Women, both within the family and within the world of work, have traditionally entered vicarious achievement roles. The roles of wife and mother are obviously vicarious ("my son the doctor"), as are most of the traditionally feminine occupations (nurse, teacher, secretary). Direct achievement roles, because they require more direct risk taking and often higher-level skills, are more highly valued and rewarded in our society. Vicarious roles, while considered necessary support roles without which most direct roles would be enfeebled (imagine the doctor without the nurse), are comparatively less valued and rewarded.

The sex-linked and sex-stereotyped character of these two types of roles is apparent. Traditionally, men have been channeled into direct roles and women into vicarious roles. In view of women's increasing economic need to support both themselves and their families, this type of sex-linked occupational pattern requires a systematic attack by educators and counselors.

Redirecting more women into educational programs that lead to direct achievement roles is a major challenge to counselors. Directing more men into vicarious roles when their personal and intellectual qualities suggest such a choice is a serious correlative challenge. Educating employers to augment vicarious achievement roles both substantively and economically (why not train secretaries to carry out certain research tasks and pay them more?) is a task of high purpose for guidance personnel to address. To deny an individual the opportunity to experience both modes of achievement, primarily on the basis of sex, is to limit the actualization of human potential for both women and men.—**Jean Lipman-Blumen, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C.**

# Programs for Adults

Nancy K. Schlossberg

Many adults are unsure of what they really want out of life and of where and how to get it. Though some developmental theorists have postulated that life consists of a series of distinct and sequential stages, it is more realistic to view life—and adulthood especially—as consisting of a number of role transformations or role changes in four basic areas: work, family, intimacy, and community. Not every person experiences these changes, each of which requires a new set of relationships, expectations, and self-evaluations. Some changes are fraught with anticipation, hope, and eagerness, others with apprehension, fear, and depression. One theme, however, seems common to all role transformations: that of taking stock.

Such a reassessment can lead to anxiety and despair, particularly among people between 30 and 60, to whom it often seems a last chance. They may feel that they have not measured up to the ideals they set for themselves earlier and that they have lost the opportunity for doing so. The situation is aggravated because it is commonly assumed that the middle-aged know themselves, have resolved their problems, and are relatively stable and rational human beings. This assumption, coupled with the indifference of our society toward middle age, causes paralyzing feelings of inadequacy in many adults. They may feel that they are unique in the negative sense, that they are not fully grown, that they are immature or neurotic.

## QUESTIONS PEOPLE ASK

More and more adult men and women are confronted by a confusing barrage of "what ifs" and "if only's." "What if I had known earlier that women could be women as well as engineers?" "If only I had not entered the family insurance business." "If only I had completed high school." Usually these are the cries of people who already have made basic decisions about education, career, and life style and who feel that there is no turning back.

Other questions, less indicative of psychic pain and turmoil but equally urgent if the individual is not to be crippled in achieving full development, plague many adults. Such questions often take the form of "Where is?" "Is there?" "What are?" "Where is a school with part-time training in tailoring?" "Is there an opportunity for women morticians?" "What are the options for a person who wants to return to school?" These people suffer not from the crisis brought about by role transformation but from an information void.

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Whatever the questions—whether they relate to one's identity, ability, and goals or to the availability of educational and occupational opportunities—many adults simply will not be able to find the answers on their own. They cannot turn to the educational system, for they are outside of it. At any given time, in fact, more of the population is out of the educational system than is in it. According to 1970 census figures, about 44 percent of the total U.S. population is between 25 and 65 years old (U.S. Bureau of the Census 1973); this age group includes a large number of people who need and want educational and career counseling but who have no easy way of getting it. Even the ever-increasing cadre for whom education is a continuing or recurring event spend a great deal of time outside the system. Many adults, then, must make important educational and career decisions in a vacuum, without the kind of help that they may desperately require.

The groups outside the system to which guidance and counseling services might be particularly helpful are varied. Some of the more obvious ones are dropouts, transfer students, veterans, women reentering the labor market, men and women at midcareer shifts, and retired people (some of them still relatively young). For example, it has been found that one in four college students transfers from one institution to another at some point (Airlie House Conference on College Transfer 1973). In most cases, the institutions from which these itinerant students depart give them no help in selecting another institution. Thus they constitute one group in need of counseling.

Between 1964 and 1971, five million men (and a much smaller number of women) were discharged from the armed services; one out of every ten had not received even a high school diploma (Bailey, Macy & Vickers 1973). Many of these veterans may want further school-

ing but do not know where to turn for guidance.

Data are harder to obtain on other groups—women who want to reenter the labor force as they are freed from child-rearing responsibilities, adults of both sexes who want to change their occupations, retired people—but some idea of their numbers can be gained from the indirect evidence of adult education enrollment figures. According to an article in the *APGA Guidepost* ("Adult Education" 1974), one of every 50 men and women 35 or older is going back to school, most of them on a part-time basis. Over half of them are women, although at the undergraduate level men outnumber women. If these adults represent the proportion of persons who have been successful in continuing their education, how many more adults are there who would probably return if they had adequate guidance?

It would seem reasonable to conclude that large numbers of people in and out of school are in the process of reformulating plans and clarifying goals. Clearly, a genuine need exists to link systematically the people with the available resources.

## **A POSSIBLE SOLUTION: COMMUNITY-BASED GUIDANCE**

### **Dysfunctions in the System**

The guidance process—helping people clarify goals and develop strategies for implementing these goals—has as its major function the linkage of people with resources. The frequent failure of the professional to discharge this basic function usually stems neither from the mediocrity of the professional nor from the inadequacy of counselor education, though in some cases both defects may mar performance. Rather, it usually stems first from the systematic deficiency already mentioned: Too many people are outside the educational system and thus are unable to find someone trained



to help them answer such questions as "Where am I going?" and "How do I get there?"

Perhaps an even more critical problem is that structural weaknesses within the educational system lead to inadequate delivery of guidance even for those who can make use of that system. Although guidance is intended to serve and to liberate individuals, too often the practice has been to serve and maintain the system, as many studies of counselor role have noted (e.g., Ginzberg 1971).

One possible solution to this dysfunction is to place guidance in a community-based setting. Community-based guidance centers, though they might draw on the resources of nearby educational institutions, would be independent of control by these institutions. They would be open to any and all clients in the community, so that those who are outside the educational system would have somewhere to turn for help.

The community-based counselors would act as educational brokers between clients and resources, their primary duty being to serve the client, not to maintain the system. Indeed, as independent professionals, the counselors would be in a position to push particular institutions in ways—and with a wholeheartedness—that would be impossible if the institution were their employer. For example, the community-based counselor could bring to bear moral or legal pressure that might force institutions to rethink old notions and to modify antiquated or irrelevant rules. Thus, a shift in locale—from school to community—refocuses counselor loyalty from the institution to the individual. A few of the emerging centers, following several patterns ranging from some institutional affiliation to none, are described below.

### **Programs**

The Regional Learning Service (RLS), an agency located in central New York

and serving five counties, represents one viable plan for getting people and resources together. Reaching out to people of all ages and educational backgrounds who want to earn a high school diploma or college degree, change careers, clarify goals, or simply gain more knowledge, the RLS employs learning consultants to help clients select goals and plan an appropriate educational program. The learning consultant follows up on the clients by, for instance, putting them in touch with other people whose interests are similar to their own. Because RLS works in cooperation with—though is independent of—other educational programs in New York State, it can be particularly useful in having the individual's previous experience evaluated and accredited. The learning consultants, who are selected not for their academic backgrounds and credentials but for their personal qualities, are put through a training program that focuses largely on developing their informational skills (Vickers 1973).

A slightly different approach is illustrated by the Community College of Vermont, an institution with neither a campus nor a full-time faculty. Established to serve a dispersed rural population, the college tailors both course offerings and schedules to the demands of the students. Since "counseling is the key to making this type of system work" ("Education for New Students" 1973), counselors actively keep in touch with students by telephone, maintain an open-door policy, and arrange for group get-togethers.

Another approach is that of the Career Counseling and Guidance Project of the National Institute of Education, which is aimed at "home-based" adults in the Providence, Rhode Island, area. The primary purpose of the project is to provide information (principally via telephone) about education, training, and careers to persons who may want to reenter the labor force. Heavy emphasis has been

placed on evaluating this program to see whether it serves a real existing need, whether such unusual methods as telephone guidance services and mobile career information centers are workable, and whether the program succeeds in its objectives of (a) encouraging clients to enroll in educational or training programs that lead to employment and (b) developing the client's ability to search for a job.

Special counseling and placement agencies for women, such as Catalyst (New York City) and Washington Opportunities for Women (Washington, D.C.) are also springing up. These centers aim at helping women develop strategies for finding employment and at encouraging employers to develop flexible options for women. All these projects—though differing considerably in their scope, methods, and stage of development—at least approximate the ideal of community-based guidance. Scattered throughout the country are other innovative programs; most of them are funded through private sources, though some with institutional affiliations receive federal subsidies. For instance, women's centers are evolving on college campuses everywhere; most of these programs exist outside the regular institutional guidance system, even though they are based in a college setting, and are aimed at facilitating women's reentry into the world of work or education.

Alan Entine (1974), an economist at the State University of New York at Stony Brook, has initiated a number of programs to facilitate midcareer changes, including (a) an information program based on a data bank of opportunities and resources in the community, (b) a plan for counseling the oversupply of blue-collar workers over 35 who are employed by the New York Telephone Company, (c) an economics course that students take for credit and community adults take not for credit but to receive

career counseling in three sessions, and (d) a faculty redevelopment project for faculty in the system.

Another university-based but community-oriented program is the Oakland Continuum Center at Oakland University in Michigan. The center, established by Priscilla Jackson, tested women and helped them find direction for their abilities; Eleanor Driver expanded the program into a series of sessions designed as an "Investigation into Identity" so that women could explore themselves. Currently, under Elinor Waters' leadership, the center serves both men and women in three ways: It helps them investigate their identity, it helps them develop specific strategies for career exploration, and it offers a systematic credit leadership training program.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) bodes well for community-based guidance, whether located in an institutional setting or not. CETA authorizes funds to states and local governments to train and offer support to out-of-school unemployed youth and adults. In addition, the Office of Education recently announced plans to fund ten or twelve Educational Opportunity Centers authorized by the 1972 Education Amendments.

The interest in adult guidance exists; programmatic models are available; legislation has been enacted to facilitate community-based guidance. What is needed now is a systematic plan for delivery on a national scale, coupled with imagination and a grasp of political realities. ■

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# Agency Settings for Career Guidance

Donn E. Brolin

Considerable need exists for community agencies to render quality career guidance services to a large portion of our population. Although many such programs do exist and are evolving around the country, the need for many more is evident. This article contains a review of some of the current career guidance agencies and services, recommendations for some needed changes, and suggestions for a more competency-based orientation by agency personnel.

## CAREER GUIDANCE AGENCIES

Career guidance agencies are lodged primarily in manpower, rehabilitation, and public and private social service agencies, although business and industry are also moving more into this important area.

### Manpower Agencies

In recent years special career guidance programs have evolved in state employment agencies—programs in basic education, classroom and/or trade training, training in job seeking skills, career exploration, paid on-the-job training, and specialized job placement assistance. These services have grown out of the needs of welfare clients and other disad-

vantaged persons, including youth, correctional inmates, and armed forces personnel. The Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), the Work Incentive Program (WIN), the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP), Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS), and the Job Corps are programs that were created to meet special needs.

The agency also offers labor information, job banks, programs for handicapped and older workers, youth services, minority group programs, veterans' services, and other career guidance services. The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) of 1973 has substituted a decentralized and decategorized program so that local needs can be better met by agency services.

### Rehabilitation Agencies

Traditionally rehabilitation agencies provide services to individuals who have a variety of physical, emotional, intellectual, sensory, and behavioral handicaps that prevent them from being assimilated into the labor market. The state vocational rehabilitation agency, due to large case loads and travel responsibilities, cannot always offer intensive career guidance. Its counselors therefore often depend on rehabilitation facilities (workshops) and rehabilitation centers to assist them in more extensive career guidance activities. Such facilities offer a work environment in which clients can learn about industrial work requirements, work habits, work skills, and work be-

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haviors and can explore different jobs while receiving career guidance. Two such agencies are described below.

Vocational Counseling and Rehabilitation Services, in St. Louis, Missouri, offers two types of services to urban clients: (a) career guidance for any adult having problems clarifying educational goals, work abilities, or other job possibilities and (b) rehabilitation services, including comprehensive work evaluation, social security disability determinations, personal adjustment training, training for job seeking skills, and job placement. In the first case, vocational counselors test and counsel self-referred or agency-referred individuals about occupational possibilities. Individuals receiving the second service obtain remunerative work training in a realistic production setting operating under accepted business standards. The agency also offers a small-scale homebound work program for individuals capable of performing work but physically unable to leave the home situation; classes for clients who, despite adequate intellectual skills, need basic academic instruction to qualify for possible jobs; and family counseling, although the agency recognizes that even more emphasis is needed in this area.

Portal Programs, Inc., in Grafton, Wisconsin, has evolved from a small work activity center for severely retarded persons to a comprehensive county service for those with all types of handicaps, from mild to severe. All trainees, no matter how low their productivity, are guaranteed 50 cents an hour and receive more if their work warrants it. With this remunerative opportunity and a businesslike but accepting environment, often the agency's main problem is convincing those who have competitive employment potential to leave after they have acquired the necessary skills. The agency also offers basic living skills and academic instruction for those needing them. Mental health, special education, vocational education, and other pro-

grams cooperate closely with the agency's delivery of services and often send their own personnel to work intensively with Portal's staff. A summer program for handicapped public school youth has been a tremendous success, giving these youngsters an opportunity to learn about the world of work, develop vocational skills, and make money, rather than remaining home for the summer with nothing to do. This agency exemplifies what can be done in a small community if agencies, the community, and parents join together to better meet the career development needs of its citizens.

### **Social Service Agencies**

Several social service agencies have become more active in providing career guidance to individuals. For example, counseling services are springing up for ex-offenders, alcoholics, drug addicts, and ex-mental patients to prevent the reoccurrence of their problems. Probation and parole agencies, courts, departments of corrections, mental health centers, halfway houses, and private agencies have established special programs for their clientele. Positive peer culture and other group techniques have gained considerable favor in recent years. The involvement of the entire family in career guidance problems is also receiving more attention.

An example of a dynamic program is that of the Roanoke (Virginia) Social Service Bureau for public assistance recipients, called the Job Orientation and Motivation Project (JOMP). The program, designed to help these individuals gain confidence and find jobs, uses group counseling to focus on the main obstacles to their employment. As a result of this program, the service worker is no longer being seen as a "fire fighter" but as a facilitator who uses "new-found goal-oriented vocational guidance tools and group dynamics expertise" (Frank & Martin 1974, p. 8). This clear-cut role has

helped the professional worker by improving his or her job satisfaction through the elucidation of an identity, and it has helped the employer by providing better and more satisfied workers.

An innovative project is being conducted at the University of Arizona under the University Year for Action Program of the federal agency ACTION. ACTION brings together VISTA, the Peace Corps, SCORE, ACE, Foster Grandparents, and several other federal volunteer programs. College students sign up as VISTA volunteers for one year as part of their graduate program. Students work in a variety of areas—adult and juvenile corrections, alcoholism counseling, drug counseling, rehabilitation counseling, health and social services for Indians, and youth counseling with unwed mothers. Students assume many career guidance activities that agency staff members never seem to have enough time to do, particularly job development, job placement, and follow-up counseling. Thus they provide valuable career guidance services while gaining extensive field experience during their college training.

### IMPROVING AGENCY SERVICES

Fortunately, hands-on experiences are being recognized and practiced as a more viable method of career guidance for many individuals than the traditional method of verbal interchange and paper-and-pencil testing. Although slow to evolve in many agencies, there is occurring more use of instructional packages, modules, job tryouts, and audiovisual techniques. Career guidance systems such as the JEVS Work Samples (developed at Philadelphia's Jewish Employment and Vocational Service), the Vocational Evaluation System, the Job Survival Skills Package, the Career Awareness Laboratory (CAL), and a new life skills program are emerging prod-

ucts. Despite the improvements that have resulted from the efforts of many agencies, much remains to be done. Here are some recommendations.

1. Agency personnel should help educational institutions rejuvenate and inject the educational system with a career development orientation, providing numerous educational offerings to meet the diverse learning styles and needs of students (rather than forcing them to fit into the system). It is important to initiate career guidance and development in the early years so it becomes infused throughout the educational system. It would be valuable for schools to secure more involvement with community agencies. This becomes especially important with the movement to mainstream special education students into regular classes.

2. Agency personnel should educate noneducational agencies about career education: what it is, how they can contribute to it, and how they can coordinate their efforts with each other and the educational system. Relevant and collaborative relationships between the school and the community agencies would enable this goal to be achieved.

3. Agency personnel should systematically identify those competencies individuals need in order to function successfully in the kind of environments in which they will be living and working. The contributions of schools and other agencies need to be specified to assure a continuum of career development services at the various stages of each individual's lifetime.

4. Agency personnel should effectively use different kinds of personnel so that those individuals with no college training can assist professional workers in the delivery of career guidance services. Volunteers, people in business and industry, and parents should be called on in these efforts.



5. Agency personnel should justify a program's efficacy by requiring the program's staff to define program objectives operationally, to specify how each of these objectives will be met and evaluated, and to measure the extent to which each of these objectives has been achieved. Agency workers need to spend most of their time on actual career guidance activities, not in shuffling papers and reporting esoteric figures to justify their existence.

6. Agency personnel should designate an existing agency in each large community and district (such as the Employment Service) to serve as a fixed point of referral for career guidance services. Carlucci (1974) has pointed out that we lack one good human service network to bring together the hundreds of narrowly based health, education, welfare, and manpower programs operating in virtual isolation from one another. He reported that 9 out of 10 people need several kinds of service rather than just one kind.

### COMPETENCY-BASED SERVICES

Agencies need to become more concerned with the total individual than with crisis counseling. Agency personnel as well as educators should provide career guidance and development services that teach skills in daily living, personal-social skills, and occupational skills. Elsewhere (Brolin 1974) I have identified 22 competencies in these three areas as being absolutely essential for educable mentally retarded persons if they are to secure a satisfactory and satisfying level of vocational and community adjustment. The competencies and their respective areas are presented below.

Skills in daily living include: managing family finances; caring for home furnishings and equipment; caring for personal needs; raising children and living

with family; buying, planning, and preparing food; selecting, buying, and making clothing; engaging in civic activities; utilizing recreation and leisure time; and getting around the community. Attainment of these nine competencies will enable individuals to manage a home, a family, finances, and themselves.

Personal-social skills include: attaining self-awareness and appraisal; acquiring self-confidence and a positive self-concept; achieving socially responsible behavior; developing and maintaining appropriate interpersonal relationships; achieving independence; making good decisions and solving problems; and communicating appropriately with others. Attainment of these seven competencies will enable individuals to learn those personal and interpersonal skills so vital to vocational and community functioning.

Occupational skills include: knowing about and exploring occupations; selecting and planning appropriate occupational choices; developing appropriate work behaviors; developing physical and manual skills; acquiring a specific job skill; and seeking, securing, and maintaining appropriate employment. Attainment of these six competencies will enable individuals to obtain employment commensurate with their abilities, interests, and needs.

### CONCLUSION

Career guidance agencies can make a significant contribution by identifying special needs and assisting clients in moving toward occupations that will meet those needs. A primary need of many is to build self-confidence so that they believe they can be successful. Too many job failures result from job dissatisfaction due to a worker's having received poor guidance or having grabbed anything that was available.

Hundreds of exemplary programs

and thousands of dedicated individuals are contributing to the improvement of career guidance in agency settings, but there is a need to make these educational, social, and vocational programs more coordinated, more responsive, and more relevant to a great number of people, no matter how limited or how brilliant they might be. ■

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Recently those in the field of guidance have acknowledged the influencing and supplementary role that parents, career professionals, and other institutional surrogates such as the media and voluntary social agencies can and do play in creating the assumptions, definitions, and realities of career preparation and choice among students. This activist role of the institutional surrogates has caused guidance practitioners to explore new ways of providing career guidance. The effect has been a diffusion of authority and responsibility for the outcomes of career guidance in the lives of students.

Correspondingly, there has been a movement to extend career guidance beyond the school to the broader arena of the community. One such effort, developed by the Boy Scouts of America, is a career-based program called "Exploring," a coeducational program for young adults between the ages of 14 and 20. The theoretical base for this activity is consistent with the traditional purposes of the Boy Scouts of America. These purposes have been and continue to be aimed toward providing an enrichment program designed to build desirable qualities of character, to provide training in the responsibilities of citizenship, and to promote personal fitness. While these purposes are classical in the context of youth-serving agencies, the methodology and program format of "Exploring" are contemporary. They are far broader than the woodcraft and campcraft skills that have popularly characterized the scouting movement.

The career orientation of "Exploring" is only one dimension of life style development emphasized in the program. The world of work and the preparation of a student for it are seen in the framework of balanced activities that include outdoor, citizenship, service, social, and personal fitness experiences. In "Exploring," no less than in any other arena, youngsters are searching for adult "experts" who will model their career and life style focus and share them with the youngsters. By collaborating with career experts who have skills and resources, interested young adults plan programs with adults and peers to meet the needs of the whole person. The career exposure happens through biweekly meetings of the membership. Consultants and other resource persons visit the location of the Explorer unit, or the group meets on the resource site. Involvement and hands-on experiences are critical to the guidance and orientation focus of these sessions.

The Explorer unit structure provides opportunities for individual leadership skills development, adult and peer recognition, and personal achievement. The philosophy and practice of the program is not a new educational concept; the current emphasis and continued development of career education is evidence of that fact. What is new, however, is the innovation by a private voluntary agency of the multidimensional program structure of "Exploring," with its focus on career development. The "Exploring" program, in its supplemental career guidance role, is firmly committed to continuing to expand the intellectual curiosity of young men and women by seeking and probing with honesty and care the human, spiritual, and physical environments. It is a life style development approach in career guidance and counseling.—**Randolph R. Scott, National Personnel Executive, National Council, Boy Scouts of America.**

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# Section III

## Methods, Strategies, and Competencies for Implementation

How can we accomplish some of our desired goals in career guidance programs? What methods and competencies do guidance and counseling personnel need in order to achieve their objectives? In this section authors cite important questions that program developers need to ask, and they identify a variety of strategies, methods, and resources that might be appropriately used to achieve different kinds of career development goals. They also examine the state of the art of counselor competencies in career guidance. This section offers counselors and counselor educators some ideas and suggestions for new directions in inservice and preservice training for career guidance effectiveness.



# New Career Development Strategies: Methods and Resources

Juliet V. Miller and Libby Benjamin

A comprehensive view of career development dictates a review, an evaluation, and an expansion of strategies used in career guidance programs. Several forces underlie this need: (a) the expanded age range of the population served, which now stretches from preschool to postretirement; (b) the unique needs of special populations; (c) the radical change in life styles and goals in today's culture; (d) the ever-increasing numbers of individuals making major occupational changes, even at midlife; (e) the dramatic change in learning settings as career development concepts are becoming infused into all areas of the curriculum; and (f) the trend toward accountability for whatever methods are chosen to achieve educational goals.

The selection of methods and resources for a career guidance program must be preceded by a number of program planning steps. Several recent writers (Cook 1972; Jones et al. 1972; O'Hare & Lasser 1971) have suggested the advantages of using a comprehensive systems approach for developing career guidance programs. This approach involves a number of steps, which ultimately result in career guidance pro-

grams that are tailored to the needs of the individuals whom the program serves. Basically, this approach includes four steps: needs assessment, development of goals and objectives, identification and selection of guidance strategies (methods and resources), and program evaluation.

The systems approach assumes that effective program development includes the use of all four steps. This means that needs assessment (the identification and prioritizing of individual needs) and the development of program goals and objectives must precede the selection of guidance strategies and that program evaluation must follow such selection so that information about the effectiveness and efficiency of the strategies can be used in subsequent program revision.

## QUESTIONS TO ASK ABOUT STRATEGIES

Several key questions should be explored as potential guidance strategies are being reviewed.

*What is the learning potential?* Once guidance objectives have been developed, information about various strategies should be analyzed to assess their effectiveness in facilitating the types of outcome behaviors desired. Sources of this information might be journal articles, published reports, discussions with others who have used the methods, and method reviews (Budke 1971; Campbell & Vetter 1971; Campbell et al. 1973; Hansen 1970; Miller & Leonard 1974; Walz 1972).

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*How appropriate is the strategy?* Specific strategies and resources are often designed for use with individuals who are at a particular developmental level (e.g., elementary students) or who have particular characteristics (e.g., disadvantaged students). When selecting strategies, such individual characteristics as educational level, ability, achievement, educational and occupational aspiration, sex, ethnic membership, self-concept, and motivation should be considered.

*What is the expertise of available staff?* Another critical factor to consider in selecting strategies is staff competencies. All other factors being equal, a strategy should be selected either because someone on the existing staff has, or can acquire through training, the requisite expertise or because other resource people are available.

*What program resources are available?* Guidance strategies require specific facilities, equipment, and materials that often are quite costly. Therefore, methods should be selected only if they can be implemented with existing resources or with obtainable resources.

*What impact will the strategy have on the existing program?* The selection of new guidance strategies represents a change effort. Because change in one part of a program usually requires subsequent changes in other parts of the program, change is often difficult to initiate and maintain. In selecting a guidance strategy, it is important to consider its impact on other parts of the program. In general, it is preferable to select those strategies that either will require only minimal change or will be compatible with the existing program.

## STRATEGIES FOR LIFE CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Below are described a selected group of career guidance strategies that seem to hold promise for facilitating the guidance outcomes defined by the new life

career development concepts. Each description includes an overview of the strategy, possible broad career guidance outcomes that the strategy might facilitate, and references to further information.

*Achievement Motivation Training.* This strategy consists of a number of procedures designed to increase individuals' motivation to achieve success by helping them function more independently and efficiently. Such programs involve these tasks: (a) teaching individuals the characteristics of high achievers, (b) teaching strategies that could lead to high achievement, (c) helping individuals set both short- and long-term goals, and (d) providing support for achieving self-determined goals. This strategy can lead to the fulfillment of career guidance goals related to self-development and career planning. Increased motivation to achieve helps individuals feel more positive about themselves and helps them develop effective goal setting behaviors (Alschuler 1969; Carlson 1972; Kopita 1973; McClelland 1968).

*Assessment Techniques.* Assessment techniques include standardized tests and other measurement techniques that are designed to measure specific individual characteristics. Traditionally, career guidance has relied heavily on norm-referenced testing to provide information about self for use in career planning. Recently developed criterion-referenced tests are designed to measure an individual's performance in relation to specific program objectives by reporting the number of objectives achieved and the nature of errors made on objectives not achieved (Harsh 1974; Jones et al. 1972). A number of available career planning programs combine norm-referenced achievement and ability data with information about an individual's values, interests, and career plans. These programs use extensive reporting formats that provide both the individual and the counselor with an array of in-

formation appropriate for use in career planning (American College Testing Program 1972; College Entrance Examination Board 1971; Prediger 1973; Psychological Corporation 1973; Science Research Associates 1968). In helping individuals understand their own personal characteristics, assessment data relate to self-development objectives. In addition, as career planning programs help individuals relate self-information to career options, assessment data also lend support to career planning objectives.

*Career Resource or Learning Centers.* The availability of career resources, physical facilities, equipment, and adequate staffing remains a prerequisite for the development and effective implementation of a variety of career guidance strategies. The concept of the career resource center recently has been expanded to include the availability of comprehensive resources; physical space for the use of those resources with clients on a group or individual basis; differentiated staffing, including volunteers, paraprofessionals, learning resource specialists, and counselors; and outreach services to facilitate the use of resources in settings other than the center. The most sophisticated career resource centers include comprehensive information systems for storage and retrieval of information, curriculum linkages, and carefully designed career guidance experiences to help individuals use the resources effectively (Alameda County School Department 1972; Circle et al. 1968; Hansen 1971; Indiana Career Resource Center 1971; Loheyde 1972; Minnesota State Department of Education 1972; Moore 1972; O'Neill 1972; Peterson et al. 1974; Willingham et al. 1972).

*Career Development Curriculum.* Because they provide career development experiences for a large number of persons, the existing school curriculum and the classroom setting can be used efficiently for implementing career guid-

ance. It is important to consider three factors in using the curriculum model. First, new curriculum materials must be developed to deal with the life career development concepts. Second, individualization is needed so that individuals can explore information that is personally relevant. Finally, teachers must be trained to be effective in relating to individuals and in structuring the classroom situation so that exploration may occur. Infusion of career development concepts into the curriculum can be helpful in facilitating self-awareness and career awareness and in developing career planning behaviors. Counselors should have an active role in curriculum development and implementation and should help individuals apply classroom learnings to their personal career planning through ongoing guidance services (Adkins 1970; Benson 1972; Birk & Tanney 1973; Carr et al. 1972; Cunha 1972; Human Development Services 1974; Minnesota State Department of Education 1972; Oregon State Department of Education 1968; Talbot et al. 1972; Vetter & Sethney 1972).

*Decision-Making Training.* Current theories of career development stress the importance of decision making, and a number of programs have been developed to teach decision making through the use of either the computer or the curriculum. These programs emphasize the exploration and clarification of personal values, the study of the decision-making process, and the use of data about self and environment. Such programs also provide opportunities for individuals to acquire and use decision-making skills in simulated or real-life situations. Decision-making training programs enhance self-development by helping individuals identify personal values and relate them to future career options. The major outcome of these programs is the development of skills in planning and decision making, which can be used to cope effec-



tively throughout life (Arutunian 1973; Chapman et al. 1973; Friel 1972; Gelatt 1968; Gelatt et al. 1972, 1973; MacKenzie & Manuel 1971; Smith 1973).

*Media.* Career guidance typically makes use of various forms of media (written, audio, audiovisual, computer, and simulated experience) to communicate information to individuals. The more traditional uses of media consist of such prepackaged materials as occupational information kits, films, or filmstrips. The media approach, although often useful, has some potential dangers. First, it is difficult to individualize the materials to varying levels of vocabulary, reading, and motivation. Second, media of this type provide one-way communication, which does not allow the individual an opportunity to seek interpretation and clarification of the information. Simulated experiences provide individuals with the opportunity to participate in situations paralleling real-life situations by allowing them to try out various behaviors and career planning options. Simulations, developed in such areas as career decision making, work behaviors, and attitudes and occupational problem solving, appear to be highly motivational. Two media approaches are the use of student-produced materials and the use of media for feedback. Client-produced media have the advantage of allowing those who are producing the materials to explore in depth those occupations of particular interest to them. Often the results are more interesting and relevant to other individuals than are materials produced by experts. Using media for feedback to individuals enables them to practice career-related behaviors and revise these behaviors based on the feedback. Media can be effective in promoting career awareness, particularly when they are used for feedback to enhance self-development (Bertcher et al. 1971; Boocock 1967; Ganschow et al. 1970; Jones & Krumboltz 1970; Kagan 1970;

Krumboltz 1970; Nelson & Krumboltz 1970; Varenhorst 1968).

*Value Clarification.* Value clarification is a process that includes a number of steps, such as defining values, introducing a range of values, emphasizing the impact of values on actions and decisions, and helping individuals identify their personal values. Value clarification can be used effectively with large groups, small groups, or individuals. Specific techniques include the use of role play, media, conflict situations, games, interviews, problem situations, values questionnaires, weekly reaction sheets, and time diaries. Value clarification most directly affects self-development; however, the value clarification process is essential to career planning and decision making (Carkhuff 1972; Chapman et al. 1973); Gelatt et al. 1972, 1973; Hawaii State Department of Education 1971; Rath & Simon 1966; Simon et al. 1971).

## CONCLUSION

Effective implementation of life career development concepts depends on expanded goals for career guidance. As goals expand, it is necessary to carefully evaluate guidance strategies currently in use and to seek new strategies. Use of a systematic approach to program development can insure feedback regarding the effectiveness of strategies and help prioritize areas in which new strategies are needed. Further exploration of the program descriptions found in the reference list can help in the process of selecting strategies that are particularly appropriate for local career guidance program goals. ■

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# Emerging Career Guidance Competencies

Anita M. Mitchell

The expanded role of counselors as facilitators of total life career development requires an expansion of their competencies. Counselors must be competent in helping individuals acquire the motivational strategies that will propel them through the development, maintenance, and use of an adequate self-concept, a sense of personal agency, and decision making skills.

It is helpful to begin with two assumptions: first, that all counselors in all settings are doing the best job they know how to do; second, that every healthy individual has an inexorable drive to grow and improve. Without assessing the quality of the counselor's current functioning, in this article I take a look at individual needs in relation to career development and at competencies counselors will need in order to become proactive.

Career guidance must address total life development, and the emphasis must be on intrapersonal integration and on clients' relationships with all facets of the environment. It is absurd to expect that the already overextended counselor can take on program planning, structuring, implementing, and evaluation responsibilities unless the counselor has an opportunity to reorder priorities and to effect some trade-offs. Since career development is a continuous process, and since many clients need assistance in shaping, integrating, and acting on emerging values, attitudes, and con-

cepts, counselors can no longer expect to be sole deliverers of career guidance; rather they must be managers, studying and interpreting the experiences and needs of their clients and drawing on all the human and material resources within the community.

## CAREER DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

A study of career decision making in progress at the American Institutes for Research under contract with NIE is attempting a synthesis of theoretical statements and empirical studies that promises to add an understanding of the many influences in the career decision making process. This and other studies, such as that of Dinklage (Kroll et al. 1970), underline the many skills persons need in order to move consciously and effectively through various phases of career development. Among these skills are awareness and acceptance of self in all dimensions—physical, social, psychological—including interests, attitudes, and values; awareness and understanding of the world of work (including available training opportunities, employment opportunities, trends, retraining needs, mobility factors, and economic meanings and consequences); employment skills; interpersonal skills; understanding of the relationship between school experiences and the world of work; skills necessary to cope with change and to plan for the future; goal setting skills; decision making skills; self-development skills; understanding of the components and influences of life style; and ability to see self as constructionist (Peatling & Tiedeman 1975).

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If clients are to have access to assistance and support in each of these areas, it is obvious that counselors need many competencies that typically are neither developed in counselor training institutions nor provided in most staff development programs. Assuming that counselors possess those competencies that have been covered in most counselor training programs, the focus here is on those most specifically related to meeting clients' career development needs.

### COUNSELOR COMPETENCIES

Analysis of the career development skills listed above reveals that many of the competencies needed are both cognitive and affective. Below they are grouped under several broad headings.

*Career Counseling Competencies.* Because counselors have tended to interpret career as occupation, they have viewed the career counseling function narrowly. They need to broaden their view and develop competence in helping clients relate specific occupational and educational decisions to their other life roles and their total life style. They need to become skilled in using new and emerging assessment instruments with clients in clients' exploration of self and of possible options. They need to develop a repertoire of specific individual and group career counseling techniques, such as career life line, the meaning of work exercises, work and leisure values, and career goal setting.

*Program Planning Competencies.* Counselors have always had the responsibility and the freedom to plan programs. But program planning has taken on new dimensions. No longer are counselors planning independently defined activities that they will perform with and/or for their clients. They must now team with other staff members to plan developmental, comprehensive career guidance programs that are integrated into the curriculum and are designed to

include every student in the school or every client in the agency. Their contribution to this joint effort must be unique. As behavioral scientists and individual advocates, counselors must bring to these planning efforts the following competencies: (a) career development theory, to provide a theoretical base; (b) mastery of cognitive theory, to explain processing of information and openness to change; (c) mastery of personality theory, to plan for client development of commitment, sense of identity, increasing ownership of values, and fidelity to goals (Kroll et al. 1970); (d) knowledge of decision theory, to insure that clients' options are open, fluid, and broad (Gelatt et al. 1973; Kroll et al. 1970), and knowledge of vocational choice theory; (e) occupational knowledge, including trends, optional training routes, employment opportunities, and sources of information; (f) curriculum development and organizational intervention; (g) skills in planning, structuring, implementing, and evaluating career development programs (Jones et al. 1972), including needs assessment and approaches to career development processes.

*Implementation Competencies.* Among these are (a) career development exploration techniques; (b) individual and group assessment skills, including development and selection of data gathering materials and techniques; (c) understanding of the relationships between occupational choice and life style; (d) techniques for helping groups who have special needs (the aging, women, minorities, those of low socioeconomic status) with respect to career development and life style; (e) androgyny—an ability to feel, interpret, and deal with the effects of cultural socialization on the career development of men and women.

*Consultation Competencies.* In the emerging framework of career development programs, consultation skills are becoming increasingly important. Competencies needed include (a) skills in

effective consultation with other staff members (teachers, supervisors, other counselors) in order to make best use of the skills of all in the implementation of career development programs and (b) skills in consulting with representatives of other agencies, of homes, and of the community in order to use the potential of each for a common purpose.

*Linkage Competencies.* The counselor needs to be an effective client advocate in communicating with other agencies with which the client is involved; in establishing linkage between agency placements; and in establishing follow-up and follow-through within and beyond the agency.

*Staff Development Competencies.* As counselors increase their professional competencies, they will find that one of the best ways to help clients is to share their skills with the significant others in the client's life. They may conduct workshops or mini-courses for other staff members in such areas as career development concepts and techniques; management techniques; techniques for career information dissemination; and assisting clients in self-clarification, effectiveness, selecting/generating objectives, selecting/generating criterion measures, and evaluating and monitoring client progress (Mitchell & Johnson 1973).

*Evaluation Competencies.* Counselors must be able to design and implement evaluation strategies, including selection and/or construction of evaluation instruments and processes; time and task analysis; process evaluation, including implementation evaluation and en route progress evaluation; establishment and maintenance of monitoring procedures; administration of instruments; data collection, analysis, and interpretation; preparation of reports of product evaluation for lay and professional groups; use of data for decision making, including cost effectiveness, cost efficiency, and cost benefit data; and research skills.

Counselors can expect to be held accountable for the evaluation of career development programs.

## NEEDED CHANGES IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION

If counselors are to be equipped with the competencies identified above, both preservice and inservice counselor education programs must address themselves to these areas. This will require changes in philosophy, goals, organization, administration, and instruction, as well as in content. Happily, many counselor training institutions already have identified these needs and have instituted competency-based programs.

*Preservice Education.* Most preservice education probably will continue to take place in the college or university setting. Program administrators will need to identify current status, need for change, and change strategies in the following areas: (a) trainee selection procedures, to determine, in advance of great investments of training time and effort, whether or not a trainee has the potential for the kind of development necessary to function effectively in the context of new counselor responsibilities in career development programs; (b) analysis of entering trainee competencies, followed by continuous monitoring of the trainee's progress in acquiring needed competencies; (c) modeling of these competencies by counselor educators; (d) opportunities to demonstrate learned competencies in real situations and to obtain feedback from instructors and colleagues; (e) instructors' assessment of trainees' progress, reflecting the operational effectiveness of their competency-based programs; (f) progress checks early in the program and at frequent intervals; (g) hands-on experiences in courses; (h) planning of the internship or fieldwork program, to insure that each trainee is placed in a setting that provides the opportunity for experience in each of the learned com-



petencies as they relate to career development and to insure real rather than nominal supervision; (i) insuring of continued current effectiveness by maintaining a placement service that assists trainees in the transition from study to application and that follows up to help them direct their efforts toward maintaining competencies and acquiring new competencies.

**Course Work.** Preservice course work should include career development theory; cognitive theory; personality theory; vocational choice theory; decision theory; counseling theory; consultation theory; economics and political science; sociology, including studies of cultural differences, cultural change, cultural mores, the role of women and other minorities, and life styles; measurement techniques, particularly in the areas of personality, interests, and aptitudes; sources of educational and occupational information and community resources; information media, including computerized career guidance systems; self-awareness, self-analysis, and self-construction; effects of internal and external influences on career decision making; program planning, structuring, implementing, and evaluating; systems change and organizational intervention.

**Staff Development.** Once counselors are on the job they must plan for the maintenance and extension of their competencies. There are two main sources of continuing education: staff development programs in-house and staff development programs elsewhere. In-house programs use the agency leaders or other resident experts as models and trainers. Competency analysis of staff members will identify many who have competencies to share with their colleagues. But there are many approaches to staff development that go beyond the agency staff and outside the agency itself. In each case the staff should assist in the statement of desired outcomes and the selection of the process. A consultant

might be brought in to work with the staff. Workshops might be sponsored by the agency and conducted in agency facilities. Off-site workshops and seminars might be arranged, either alone or in cooperation with other agencies, or they might be sponsored by other profit or nonprofit groups and attended with agency support. Professional conferences and conventions furnish opportunities for introductions to many competencies and sometimes provide training sessions at less cost than local training programs. Colleges and universities are sponsoring an increasing number of career development and career guidance/education workshops that give counselors opportunities to add to their competencies.

Most important of all, professional organizations must assume a vigorous stance in informing all publics of the changing role of the counselor and of counselors' expanding competencies, particularly those related to career development. Professional organizations must also assume leadership in motivating counselors to embrace their new role, must encourage educational institutions to provide appropriate training, and must themselves design programs that will enhance the competencies of their members. ■

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## Section IV

# The Interface with New Thrusts in Education

This section emphasizes the need for counseling and guidance personnel to look beyond the boundaries of their own walls, resources, and programs to other disciplines and resources. The integration of career psychology, career guidance, and career education is discussed in relation to integration of the self. This section provides a brief glance at the emerging field of alternative futures and the relationship of this field to career guidance, projecting implications for counselors. Both articles focus on the career of the person as well as that of the career guidance counselor.



# Structuring Personal Integration into Career Education

David V. Tiedeman

Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma electrified the field of vocational psychology in 1951 with their book, *Occupational Choice: An Approach to General Theory*. In the first place, they focused attention in the field away from occupational success and toward occupational choice. In the second place, they introduced time into the study of vocational psychology. Finally, they formulated initial propositions about developmental stages and periods associated with occupational choice from childhood to young adulthood. In those stages the occupational choice is supposed to advance from the condition of fantasy into the condition of reality and preliminary trial. In this theory, integration is not achieved but stretches far into the future, and only in potential at that.

The Ginzberg book challenged Super to organize a new field of career psychology. He did so in two major steps. His first major step was to propose a theory of vocational development (1953). The ten propositions in Super's theory centered occupational choice in the self-concept and made the development of the vocational self-concept within the multipotentiality of each individual the primary subject of vocational develop-

ment. His second major step was publication of *The Psychology of Careers* (1957). This now classic book incorporated his theory of vocational development into a life development framework, and it changed the study of vocational psychology from that of singular vocational events into that of the interactive and multitudinous vocational events that occur from birth to death. He proposed that vocational development can be expected to progress through stages of growth, transition, trial, maintenance, and decline. Career patterns take shape and find expression or give frustration within such a vocational development framework. Personal integration may or may not occur before entropic structural differentiations leading to death set in. Career guidance tries to insure that integration does occur.

## CAREER GUIDANCE: A FIRST STEP

The 1950s saw the swing from an occupational to a career psychology. The 1960s saw new social forces coalesce with the new career development theory to make an impact on the practice of guidance. Professionally, the forces at play in guidance were ones focusing on the necessity of doing individual counseling long enough and well. The theoretical underpinnings of those forces originated in psychotherapy and had a marked influence on the changing practice. The fact that Ginzberg (1971) correctly hypothesized a current conflict

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rather than a confluence between counseling and the turning of vocation into career is one of the shames in our field. Actually, the work of Bordin, Nachmann, and Segal (1963), Holland (1959), Roe (1956), Super (1957), and Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) all emphasize the interplay of psychology and work. Intensive and extensive instruction, interviewing, and counseling are needed to bring these understandings to the forefront of the mind in those we help. But therapy and career must be united in the person; they are never united in what others do for the person. Such help only makes personal integration possible, never assured.

### CAREER EDUCATION: A SECOND STEP

Former U.S. Commissioner of Education Sidney P. Marland, Jr. brought developments in career psychology to a practical head in 1971, when he singled out career education as a major means to improve education. On his appointment, he quickly announced his intention for the field of career education at the 1971 Convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals meeting in Houston, Texas. There he proposed

Life and how to live it is the primary vocation of all of us. And the ultimate test of our educational process on any level is how close it comes to preparing our people to be alive and active with their hearts and their minds, and for many, their hands as well. (p. 9)

With this goal, Marland then took off from Venn's (1970) conclusion that "if we want an educational system designed to serve each individual and to develop his creative potential in a self-directing way, then we have work to do and attitudes to change" (p. 4). According to Marland, "All our efforts as educators must be bent on preparing students to become properly, usefully employed immediately upon graduation from high school or to go on to further formal education" (p. 5). Unfortunately, some

people, including many in counseling and guidance, have taken only Marland's limited latter goal for the work we must do and the attitudes we must change. A recent computer search of ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) turned up numerous documents detailing what needs to be done of a differentiating vocational nature at each of several stages of career education (ERIC Clearinghouse 1974a, 1974b, 1974c) but little detailing what needs to be done of an integrating career nature.

Actually, counselors additionally need to structure comprehension of personal career reintegration during times of successive vocational differentiations into Marland's limited vocational goal to achieve his general career goal—the comprehended life. Who should do what? How should each do what is needed?

### EDUCATING FOR CAREER

#### First: Create Awareness of Process and of Decision Making Development

Two levels of integration needed in facilitating career development have so far been designated: the level of career theory and the level of organization for career education. As we achieve integration at these two levels, both of which are needed to insure viability of personal integration in burgeoning career education, we must continually remind ourselves of one thing: Johnny and Suzy must always integrate for themselves; we can't integrate for them. But how can we accomplish that and still help Johnny and Suzy?

Ellis and Tiedeman (1970) made a careful analysis of what is needed for growth in self-comprehension during its repeated educational or decision-making cycles of partial integration, differentiation, specific integration and general reintegration. In the first place, they follow Tiedeman and O'Hara's (1963)

paradigm: Development of any decision about career potential has an anticipation phase and an accommodation phase; the anticipation phase can be divided into steps of exploration, crystallization, choice, and clarification, and the accommodation phase into steps of induction, reformation, and reintegration.

First, the Tiedeman and O'Hara paradigm gives Ellis and Tiedeman an explicit basis for one person's analysis of another's career decision. Then,

In enunciating the aspect of accommodation, the paradigm argues that one of the things to which one must accommodate is the decision process itself. But integration is the development of meaning that is independent of language as the instrument of that meaning. Thus the language of decision making, even though it is the medium through which understanding of the process comes, must be thrown off before the accommodation is complete. . . . By way of an essentially artistic activity, the counselor must take his client through these phases not with respect to a particular problem so much as with respect to the process itself. He must establish the client's proficiency in the language of the process, develop his awareness of this language and its effects, and, in the end, facilitate the individual's internalization of this process. In doing this, the counselor leaves the client with a sense of agency as a logical consequence. The state in which one believes one's self to be a significant agent in determining what happens to one comes not from convincing one about it but from the *internalization of the decision process*. (Ellis & Tiedeman 1970, pp. 356-357, italics added)

Miller and Tiedeman (1972) subsequently took off from Ellis and Tiedeman's gestaltlike declaration of decision process comprehension during decision making development and indicated in further detail how a decision making program can be organized in education so that process realization, not a student's projection onto the counselor of the student's responsibility for a decision, occurs and generalizes. Their essential propositions are noted in steps 2 and 3 below. Miller-Tiedeman (1974) has also constructed an explicit Deliberate Decision-Making Education Program, which carries this detail into middle and secondary school operations.

## **Second: Watch Structure of Inquirer and Facts in Generation of Information**

Fuller, Bown, and Peck (1967) are acutely aware of the responsibility for knowing, a responsibility that must be confronted during instruction. In their theory, the heart of growth is the condition of the learner's understanding of self in relationship with others. In their application of the Johari Window to this understanding, that part of the learner known to self and others is public. The part known to others but not to self is incongruent to the person. The part unknown to either self or others is unconscious. And the part known to self but not to others is private. The art of instruction for self-learning requires the harmonization of the teacher's knowledge with the private sector of the individual's cognitive subsystem so that the private part normally resisting assimilation of knowledge can be brought through the incongruent sector known to teacher or counselor but not to individual into the public sector known to all. When private knowledge is enlarged by the known in this fashion, it becomes public knowledge; personal cognitive hierarchical restructuring or specific integration and general reintegration takes place in the transitional process.

## **Third: Create a Design for the Existence of Intuition during Self-Directing Assimilation**

Is it possible that, in instructing by means of a well-conceived design, we are on the threshold of eliminating student abrogation of responsibility for knowing while being instructed, particularly in the instruction associated with career guidance? I think so.

## **THE IN-FORMING SYSTEM**

Risk is an essential condition for solving the paradox of intuition in development. Possibilities and progress must always be

traded off: Progress is bought at the expense of possibilities, possibilities at the expense of progress. We decide in order to resolve, however slightly, our uncertainties in the structural changes needed progressively to go from A to B. The person comes to know this fact at increasingly more fundamental levels of understanding as the person develops self hierarchically, the way in which Tiedeman (1973) hypothesizes that self-development takes place. As the person also comes to know the truth in Polanyi's. (1966) assumption that "we can know more than we can tell" (p. 4), the person comes to know at increasingly more fundamental levels of being that one's own intuition is the engine of intelligence (Tiedeman 1972). The more a person risks to intuition, the more he or she develops hierarchically. This presents a challenging goal for career education.

If structured appropriately, instruction can play an important role in structuring *in* the self understanding of intuition in times of decision making development. The first needed aspect of the instructional role or design is that of access to information through a career or even a general library such as ERIC. The second needed aspect is the effect on the learning process; the "out there" can knowingly become the "in me" if the program or designs create a mediating effect (O'Hara & Tiedeman 1971) that makes individuals aware of their intuition as well as of information while they attack problems. How can this be done?

Let's take ERIC's file of information as an example. Although the system has been in existence only since the mid-sixties, the previously "fugitive" educational resources incorporated into ERIC since then are now fairly complete and quite accurately assembled in one place. Completeness and accuracy constitute two of the conditions that persons attempt to use their minds to meet in their decision making. By letting their minds cooperate with such systems as ERIC,

users are able to achieve both conditions more fully in relation to educational resources assembled since the mid-sixties. The availability of access to these resources through computer tapes gives more flexibility to the use of this information than was possible prior to ERIC. All the user has to do is let ERIC become adjuvant to the mind. ERIC and its microfiche and associated journals then open for every person new vistas of contact with educational developments in the United States and other parts of the world heretofore unavailable.

Several years ago Walz and Rich (1967) caught the magnitude of ERIC's new potential when they listed these essential characteristics of an in-forming system: (a) a store of information indexed so as to maximize the user's ability to locate rapidly what is relevant to his or her specific concerns and (b) two search strategies—a strategy identifying all materials dealing with any one concept and a coordinate index search strategy yielding information smaller in quantity but more directly relevant to the user's question.

Walz and Rich argued that such an information system will have the following predictable general outcomes: (a) use will focus on synthesis and evaluation, (b) use will reveal information gaps, (c) use of impersonal information sources will increase, (d) opportunities for inter-professional interaction will increase, (e) information rather than books will become the primary focus for retrieval, and (f) information dissemination will become broader and faster. They proposed that ERIC would also influence the education of counselors through a primary focus on inquiry, a need for new learning approach skills, more personal evaluation and integration, new methods of professional communication, and more collaborative efforts. As it might be with ERIC appropriately structured into counselor education, so it ought to be with career resource centers appro-



priately structured into career education. But how?

## HOW? GENERALIZE!

The beautiful integrative results that Walz and Rich attribute to counselor education from ERIC are too precious to leave to counselor education alone. These effects constitute explicit delineation of maturation in comprehension of reintegrations through times of successive personal cognitive differentiations. What one experiences and does when one thinks ought to be the major substance and effects of career education. Joy and power from examined and purposeful experience can become the reward of every citizen if we but insure that career decision making interests are infused into career education in forms compatible with a general information system such as ERIC.

However, as we put career decision making interests into career education, we must be exceedingly careful that what we do does not eliminate the very effect we seek. In order that personal responsibility in knowing can remain with the person being helped in career education, not with those who are structuring it in, it is essential that attention to analysis and help in decision making development be structured in with care. The medium or career guidance program should massage personal growth in comprehension of differentiation and integration in each decision-making development, not be the primary message thereby making decisions for people.

Let us therefore persevere in the goal of examining personhood while deciding during living, but let us keep looking carefully at the means of doing so in order that the means never preclude the goal but instead improve its realization for each person we help. That is the challenge of career education: to improve such realization for every child, woman, and man. ■

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If the concept of a consciously facilitated lifelong process of career development is to permeate the educational program, what must be expected of the schools? There is a great danger that career education and development will be caught up in obsolete concepts that have relevance neither to today's students nor to the conditions of a rapidly changing society. Schools must rise to the challenge of new expectations in several dimensions.

First, we must learn to know and respect different kinds of people. Many teachers and counselors now employed in the schools have experienced a single cultural background and have little empathy for persons from different cultures. Therefore, one of the first skills every educator needs is in the realm of interpersonal relationships. Specific skills are needed for teaching educators how to communicate openly, establish good working relationships, and find ways for discovering resources and sharing them with students. The schools need teachers and counselors who have cast off old stereotypes about careers. Eliminating sex-role stereotypes and stereotypes regarding careers suitable for minority and nonminority persons is one of the fresh viewpoints needed.

The counseling function must be generally broadened in the schools and universities. It should expand far beyond the office of the counselor and should involve teachers, administrators, and lay citizens from the community in the whole process of advising as related to educational planning and career decisions. Needed are teachers and counselors who know a great deal about the wide variety of occupations available, who are knowledgeable about the nature of career change in the face of a rapidly changing society, and who understand the characteristics and life styles that differentiate various occupations. Many schools are making it possible for students to observe and communicate with workers in all sorts of work settings. The schools need to assume responsibility for planning experiences in the community and at the same time augmenting real life experiences with several other dimensions of learning about careers.

Closely associated with all of the other career education expectations of the school is the need to help students develop the skills of decision making. The processes of identifying values, expressing objectives, and assigning priorities can all be brought into play in a variety of classroom situations in various subject fields to assist students in learning the skills of arriving at rational decisions. When expectations such as these are fulfilled, young people can cope with a rapidly changing world and rapidly changing careers, which, after all, are not something off in the future but are a person's whole life style here and now.—Glenys G. Unruh, Assistant Superintendent, School District of University City, Missouri.

# Swinging into the Future

Garry R. Walz

Alternative futures. Futurism. Futurology. Futuristics. Not only are new words being added to our vocabulary, but new curriculums are being added to schools and colleges throughout the nation. Yet few writers have seen or expressed the linkage among alternative futures, career development, and career guidance.

If there is a general recognition of the need to be planning for tomorrow, it would seem that career guidance should assign an especially high priority to assisting individuals to project into the future and make decisions and plans that are consonant with their futuristic images. Traditionally the past has been studied as a means to understanding the present. Perhaps now is the time to develop a heritage of the future, to increase everyone's awareness of the need and capability to think and act futuristically. For knowledge deals with the past, but all decisions are in the future. And decisions and plans are what career guidance is all about.

Fortunately, there is ample evidence that counselors are aware of the need to consider the implications of the future. Long before such thinking became popular, Wrenn (1962) addressed himself to imagining the future and considering the implications of that future for counselor preparation and practice. The influence of his creative and forward thinking made itself evident in sub-

sequent journal articles and APGA programs. Since that time, many counselors have demonstrated their awareness of the importance of futuristic considerations and have been responsive to the need for special kinds of experiences for their clients.

While the futuristic literature abounds with doomsday and Utopian predictions as to what the future will bring, relatively little attention has been given to the demands that will be made on individuals if they are to cope effectively with the world they will experience. Even the recent *Saturday Review/World* anniversary issue (1974), devoted to probing the future, seemed to share this partiality for emphasizing technological developments and macroprograms while slighting discussion of demands on and needed behaviors of individuals in the future. Therefore, the focus of this article is, first, on imaging new demands that will have an impact on the citizen of 2000 A.D. from a career development perspective and, second, on determining what career guidance strategies should be invoked now to prepare for the future.

## IMAGES OF THE BEHAVIORAL FUTURE

Futuristic forecasters regularly have cautioned against making a common error: negative forecasting, or underestimating the amount and direction of change. It is understandable that one may choose to play it safe by making very conservative and limited predictions of the changes that may occur. For present purposes, however, overshooting may be more helpful than undershooting; if one plans for events before they happen, one has

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probably not harmed anyone but rather has provided individuals with behaviors that anticipate conditions yet to come.

### **Choosing**

A proliferation of choices of near exponential proportions will characterize people's life space in the future. In every aspect of their lives—types of schools and colleges and offerings within them, occupations, products, services, life styles—individuals will be continuously confronted with having to make critical life decisions, often with only limited information and with pressing time constraints. Even now victims of overchoice are numerous in society; they are people who are unable or unwilling to make decisions or who avoid the need to choose by adopting rigid, stereotyped attitudes and behaviors.

If individuals in the future are to utilize the offerings of a pluralistic society, they must possess as part of their coping armamentarium keen competencies in option generation and decision making. Nothing less than a systematic approach and a confidence born of successful mastery of complex decisions will suffice. Successful outcomes will be the result of an individual's capacity to create new options where it was believed that none existed and to experience decision making as corroboration of the power of the self to enhance its becoming. Coping behavior will be exemplified not by a passive acceptance of what must be done but by a striving for those situations that will allow an individual to generate and adopt ideas and plans that will augment his or her attainments.

### **Learning**

The transient society of the future will ask much of its citizens. For those for whom it reserves its most bountiful rewards, it will demand a yearning for learning, a zesty appetite for mastering the new and the challenging. The span of most ideas, thoughts, concepts, and skills

will be considerably reduced. A fact learned today will need to be replaced with a new fact tomorrow. Permanence of ideas and skills will be an atavism to be combated.

In particular, individuals will need to adopt new modes of learning to assimilate large bodies of information, to evaluate the quality and utility of information, and to draw valid inferences and generalizations. Of much importance will be the capacity of individuals to utilize information technology through cable TV, videotapes, and other media in order to bring to any situation all available information and accumulated experience. Books of the future will be the custom products of skillful users of information systems who artfully extract from massive information banks and put between covers all that is relevant and pertinent to their particular needs.

To a large extent, the richness and vibrance of an individual's life career will depend on that person's capacity to recycle and renew his or her ideas and skills. On career guidance rests a unique responsibility for the quality of self-learning and self-exploration. Thorough and continuing self-learning will provide the base for knowing the world outside the person.

### **Relating**

"How can I maximize my ability to share fully my thoughts and feelings with this person I have just met?" may be the relating mode of the citizen of the future. Discarding age-worn notions of the desirability of developing relationships cautiously and slowly, people will immediately give to and draw from each encounter that which they can. An intimacy delayed in a transient and mobile society will be an intimacy forever lost. Mutual intimacy may be the elixir of future life careers—a means for one person to share something with another and in turn be the recipient of what the other can offer, both emerging enriched, even

ennobled, by the experience. With the potential for enhanced life roles as family member, worker, learner, and leisure participant, relationship skills are too important to be left to chance; career guidance must focus on providing that upon which careers depend.

### **Working**

"I want daily meaning as well as daily bread out of my work." "I want to be remembered for something." "The system stinks." "We have focused on the work and ignored the worker." Such expressions give voice to an emerging redetermination of what work must be if it is to be performed effectively. Participants' decision making, work enrichment, teamwork, and creation of worker task forces communicate a sense of more significant worker participation in the process of work performance. The literature is already replete with discussions regarding a predicted reduction in time spent in paid work, improved physical working conditions, and the introduction of enrichment programs designed to aid workers in experiencing a sense of craftsmanship and pride in what they do and in participating in decisions that vitally affect their working lives.

An important consequence of the changing work scene is that, although work will become more rewarding, it will also place greater demands on workers. They will need, as part of their work behaviors, the various attributes that have been described here as being necessary for coping with life. Higher-level work will require workers with higher-level skills in learning, relating, making decisions, and resolving conflicts.

### **Bridging**

A probable aspect of life in the future is the fractionalization of society into self-interest groups, each group seeking to promote its ends and frequently warring with groups whose goals it sees as being

in conflict with its own. The increasing number of advocates of this or that, the liberation of special population groups, greater personal expression and involvement in decision making in all spheres of life suggest that people will increasingly find themselves at odds with one another.

Time itself will become an important determinant of personal attitudes and viewpoints. With events and situations changing so rapidly, individuals who have had experiences that are very similar and that took place almost at the same time may find that what each has experienced bears such slight resemblance to what the other has experienced that they will view and respond to ostensibly the same experience very differently.

The gaps—between rich and poor, educated and noneducated, young and old, conservative and liberal, technologist and humanist, to name just a few—will likely proliferate and widen. Conflict in the future will be fundamental to the human condition. Basic to living and coping in this society will be the development of effective group and individual approaches to defusing conflict and building interpersonal bridges. When appropriately viewed and responded to, conflict need not be debilitating. In fact, it can be a useful catalyst for change. The challenge for career guidance is to assist individuals to identify potential and existing conflicts in their life space and, by attitude and skill, promote the willingness to deal directly with those conflicts. Bridge builders will be highly esteemed and in demand!

### **Switching**

The citizen of the 21st century may be one who can smoothly and artfully change from one life style to another, from occupation to occupation, and comfortably assume the role appropriate to any given situation. The ability to switch occupations, locations, goals, priorities, and mode of living may be an

important element in realizing one's potential. In a society that has traditionally espoused the virtues of permanence and steadiness, there must occur a reorientation that will facilitate individuals' adopting and adapting life elements important to them at any stage of living. Career guidance should introduce the individual to the possibility of switching early in his or her education and should assist each individual not to stumble between switches.

### IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER GUIDANCE

It has been said that even the crudest of maps in early times were historically significant, for they gave visibility to areas requiring further exploration and also suggested routes along which exploration could proceed. Perhaps this discussion can be compared to a primitive map and its value assessed in the contribution it may make to further thought and analysis of futuristic career guidance. The following implications are presented in a spirit of stimulating the discovery of new futures.

1. The life career that individuals develop for themselves will in large measure be the outcome of the range and depth of their experiences and the capacity they possess for identifying and developing alternatives and choosing among them. It therefore stands to reason that the utmost importance must be given in career guidance to providing the double E: exploring and experiencing. It is unlikely that meaningful choices and plans can occur without them. The challenge is to so design career guidance programs that all aspects of life career development are thoroughly explored and each individual is given the opportunity to experience areas in which she or he must make critical plans and decisions.

2. An enormous imbalance exists presently in school and college curriculums. The past receives the most attention, the

present some attention, and the future little or no attention. Career guidance can serve as a vehicle for raising the question, "What do my present efforts have to do with what I will do in the future?" Career guidance can serve to sensitize others to the importance of future-mindedness and to reinforce the need to adopt future-focused role images. Discussions of what can and should be done in developing futuristic programs are contained in two ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Information Center publications (ERIC/CAPS 1971; ERIC/CAPS 1974).

3. A common difficulty in career guidance is having too many unitarians—people who conceive career guidance as the stringing together of a number of units and calling them a developmental program. The program may look comprehensive and relevant on paper, but it rarely is that to the participant. What is not needed is another unit on futurism plugged into existing career guidance programs. An integrated and sequential approach, the Life Career Development System (Walz, Smith & Benjamin 1974), emphasizes futuristic thinking and behaving throughout and concludes with a module devoted to assisting users in launching into the future. It illustrates how future-mindedness can become a continuous and integral aspect of life career development and focuses on preparing individuals with futuristic attitudes and skills.

The mind-stretching projections and scenarios forecasting of futuristics have to be linked to human career development and must call for increased dialogue between counseling personnel and the futurists. The future will ask of its contemporaries that they be able to conceive of themselves and the world in such a way as to behave differently from the ways people have been using for hundreds of years. Individuals may either stumble into the future without planning or forethought, or they may swing into



the future with knowledge, grace, and aplomb. Futuristic career guidance can make the difference. What's your pleasure, counselor? ■

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Why do we continue to assume that there is some inherent logic holding together the passage of a decade and the need to find something different to do in education, thus making earlier proposals obsolete? Why are the seventies the time for career education, whereas the sixties were not? More important, will career education have sufficient vitality to make it into the eighties? If career education is narrowly defined as "getting students ready for a job," the "topics by decades" syndrome of curriculum development mercifully works to our advantage and extinguishes such cramped aims. If career education includes among its characteristics the development of a positive self-concept, the examination of alternative life styles, and the interplay between self-concept, desired life style, and the choosing of possible occupations, then it would be worthwhile to renew its option for the eighties, even at the risk of encountering predictable sentiment for something "new."

Career education is a direct reflection of educators' attempt to make school relevant to its clientele. However, it sometimes appears that in our rush to get kids ready for the "real" world of occupational selection and implementation we act as though students are inhaling artificial air until they leave the "unreal" environment called school. Attending school is no less real to the student than the assembly line is to a production worker at General Motors, than meeting patients is to a physician, than publishing is to a professor. Kids in school are already into a career; it's called being a student. And for the great majority, this first career will last for at least eleven years. The implications are clear: Career education programs, from their initial applications, should provide for student involvement in a systematic and continuously evolving study of the school environment.

Thus the school culture, within which the first career unfolds, provides the parameters for students to pursue such questions as: Why am I in school? Why do we gather into structures called classrooms and groups called classes? What are the expected roles of teachers and students within this setting? How do expected roles change? How does learning take place? What would the ideal school look like? How can I actively shape, rather than passively implement, this first career of mine? The inquiry activity pursuant to such questions should provide a firsthand, "realistic" setting within which students begin to contemplate, anticipate, and plan for their next career, which—unlike the first one—will probably not be predetermined by society.—**Frank L. Ryan, Associate Professor of Education, University of California—Riverside.**

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1972. By David V. Tiedeman, Anne Roe, Donald E. Super, and John L. Holland. Provides an introduction to vocational development theory, assesses the needs of the future, and illustrates the frontier research in the field of vocational behavior. 264 pp. \$5.95. (order #036)

### **Tested Practices: Organizing a School Counseling Program—The Priority: Career Counseling Program**

1974. By James D. Wiggins. Counselors wishing to organize and implement the priority career counseling program will find this book of immeasurable value in their school setting. A detailed explanation with all necessary forms is included to assist school personnel in the implementation of this program. The research and evaluation reports on the priority career counseling program are also included to assist counselors in showing the positive results with students from this career counseling program. 80 pp. \$2.50 (order #323) An NVGA Book.

### **A Comprehensive View of Career Development.**

1974. Edited by Garry Walz, Robert Smith and Libby Benjamin. This monograph is the outcome of a workshop sponsored jointly by APGA, Impact magazine and the ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Center, and held in Ann Arbor, Michigan, June 1973. Each chapter speaks to a significant and emerging trend or theory in career planning—career guidance and women, guidance and the technological boom, models for future planning and much more. The work will interest all with a stake or an interest in career guidance and development. It will provide the reader with a clear vision of what can and should be done, and how. 104 pp. \$5 to APGA members; \$6 to non-members. (order #024) An NVGA Book.

### **NVGA Bibliography of Current Career Information.**

1973, 6th edition. Lists and evaluates 2,300 books and pamphlets, describes and evaluates occupational films, and has a special section on career-related information. 129 pp. \$2. (order #309)



## Measuring Vocational Maturity for Counseling and Evaluation

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## Career Education and the Counselor.

APGA Reprint Series #7. 1974. Edited by John Pietrofesa, George Leonard and Roy Giroux. This book came about, frankly, because "most counselors know very little about the world of work outside of education," according to the National Advisory Council on Education, 1972. The editors have integrated the work of a number of respected writers in the field into a broadly-based vademecum of career counseling information. This work is future-oriented, scholarly, eclectic and practical. In press. (order #032)

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## Action and Careers in a New Age.

1973. By Dwight Arnold, Don Phillips, Margaret Howell and John Eddy. A valuable resource for elementary, secondary and higher education counselors and teachers as well as personnel in the helping professions who do career counseling for persons of all ages. This mimeographed booklet provides a philosophy and directory for counseling for peace-related vocations. 48 pp. \$2. (order #019)

**Career Education.** November 1973 issue of *The School Counselor*. The content of career education programs in the school, the questions and implications with respect to social determinism, and the arguments that make such programs viable are discussed in this issue. Included are articles that deal specifically with career education in the elementary school and career education as it affects blacks. 96 pp. \$2.50

## Career Guidance Practices for Disadvantaged Youth

1974. This NVGA monograph (by Juliet Miller and George Leonard) stresses these vital topics: Career guidance needs and objectives for the disadvantaged, including goals related to self-development and to understanding the world of work. *Career Guidance Practices for Disadvantaged Youth* describes 22 activities which can help enhance skills in career development and guidance. Also included is a list of relevant materials. This work will benefit any professional who is involved in career guidance. 70 pp. \$2.95



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## Drugs and the School Counselor.

1972. By Robert M. Casse, Jr., Marilee K. Scaff and William T. Packwood. What are the issues involved in counseling the drug user? What are the implications for counselors of state and federal statutes on drug abuse? How can counselors aid in developing enlightened policies on drug use within their school systems as well as facilitating drug education programs in their communities? These and other questions are explored in this concise text which defines the responsibilities of counselors to their counselees and community. Case study, drug-abuse guides, counseling strategies. 148 pp. To APGA members \$4; to non-members \$5. (order #050)

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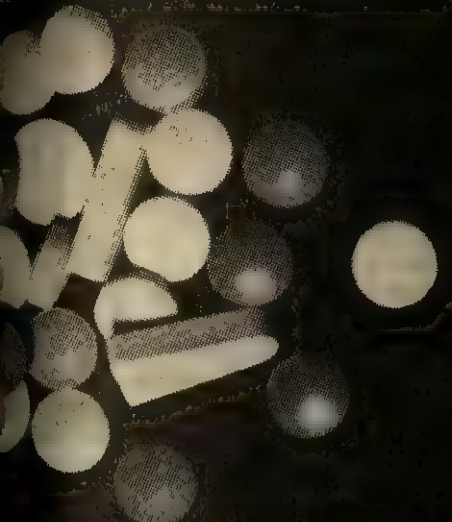
1974. The counselor today finds that he or she faces a heart-rending dilemma. In an increasingly fast-paced and chaotic age the counselor is needed by more people for an increasing number of reasons. And the counselor faces an ever-present danger of liability for harm done to a counsellee because of the unique relationship between the two. It is obvious that the counselor cannot perform effectively while the law is a threat.

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**Help** uses the cinema verité technique to demonstrate how one telephone crisis intervention center is operated. Fast moving scenes include interviews with "street people" manning the telephones and their experiences with callers. a brief discussion with the founders of the Help facility who describe how they began the community service. young people on trips, arguing with parents and buying pills. The stories are cameoed and the viewer often sees only the anguish of the individual on the phone. As to the problems of the caller. But mainly, the viewer gets the impression that many young people are in trouble and cannot turn to anyone except their peers or those practically trained in drug abuse, like the volunteers. **Help** 25 minutes. Color. Good sound. Sale price \$265; rental fee per day of use \$25. (order #H10)

Although **Help** can stand by itself as both a documentary and a model for those desiring to establish a similar service in their communities, it is suggested that other components be used with the film to provide a broader outlook on the types of counseling programs being conducted in this local area.

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5. *Feedback.* Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

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# Concepts in Transactional Analysis

*Morris L. Haimowitz and Natalie R. Haimowitz are currently engaged in private practice and in training group therapists from all over the world. In these three films, the Haimowitzs in a voice-over commentary indicate what they, as therapists, were attempting to accomplish at different points in the group sessions, and how the problems presented by the group members illustrate concepts in transactional analysis.*

**Concepts in Transactional Analysis: Therapy in a Group Setting with Morris and Natalie Haimowitz: Mary.** Mary illuminates the TA concept of script, which refers to the psychological forces which propel a person toward his or her destiny. Script decisions are usually formed in early childhood under parental pressure, and shape behavior whether or not the individual fights it or says it is their own free will. 16mm, color and sound. 25 minutes. Sale price \$300; rental fee per day of use \$30.

**Concepts in Transactional Analysis: Therapy in a Group Setting with Morris and Natalie Haimowitz: Bruce.** Bruce focuses on parent-adult-child ego states which constitute the structure of personality in TA theory. The problems of being a victim—one of three interactive roles in the TA drama triangle of victim-rescuer-

persecutor—as well as the discounting of feelings and TA as contractual therapy are also covered. 16mm, color and sound. 25 minutes. Sale price \$300; rental fee per day of use \$30.

**Concepts in Transactional Analysis: Therapy in a Group Setting with Morris and Natalie Haimowitz: Charlotte.** Charlotte presents, as part of the therapy, the TA constructs of rubber bands, attaching to a current situation feelings from the past; rackets, a person's existential position which finds its expression in "saving stamps," or collecting enduring non-genuine feelings, which can be traded for a guilt-free "blow up." The film also covers the four TA life positions of I'm OK, You're OK, I'm not OK, You're not OK, and scripts. 16mm, color and sound. 25 minutes. Sale price \$300; rental fee per day of use \$30.

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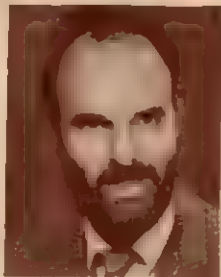
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# Influencing Human Interaction

The Influencing Human Interaction curriculum using the IPR (Interpersonal Process Recall) method developed by Dr. Norman Kagan provides the teaching resources you need.

At present, there are two IPR units.



Norman Kagan has developed an excellent experiential program for developing effective communication and interviewing skills for counselors, psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers. The program can also provide some mental health training for other professional and paraprofessional groups: teachers, administrators, physicians, nurses, clergy, etc.—Personnel and Guidance Journal

## 1 ELEMENTS OF FACILITATING COMMUNICATION

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- Affective and cognitive dimension—learning to identify the feeling tone, the affective part of what the other person is saying and learning how to focus on underlying attitudes, values, and bodily reactions
- Honest labeling—how to communicate to the other person that you are willing to deal directly and honestly with what you have seen and heard.

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helpful but are not used by effective interviewers as a way of responding to every client statement and that indeed it is frequently inappropriate to use them.

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# The Personnel and Guidance Journal

volume 53

number 10

june 1975



## **In This Issue:**

*counseling in gerontology  
... new options for college  
... the Vail Conference ...  
reducing conflict ... activity  
group guidance ... righting  
the wrongs of writing*

## **Plus:**

*In the Field  
A farewell from the editor*



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**Manuscripts:** Submit manuscripts to the Editor according to the guidelines that appear in every issue of the JOURNAL.

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**Reprints:** Available in lots of 50 from Publications Sales, APGA. **Back issues:** \$2.00 per single copy for current volume and four volumes immediately preceding from Publications Sales, APGA. **Single issues of earlier volumes:** Available from Walter J. Johnson, Inc., 111 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10003. **Bound volumes:** Available from Publications Sales, APGA. **Microfilm:** University Microfilms, Inc., 313 North First Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48107.

**Indexing:** The JOURNAL's annual index is published in the June issue. The JOURNAL is listed in *Educational Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *College Student Personnel Abstracts*, *Sociology of Education Abstracts*, *Personnel Literature*, *Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory*, *Mental Health Book Review Index*, *Poverty and Human Resources*, *Exceptional Child Education Abstracts*, and *Employment Relations Abstracts*. Book reviews are indexed in *Book Review Index*.

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Published monthly except July and August by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Title registered, U.S. Patent Office. Member of the Educational Press Association of America. Printed in the U.S.A. Second class postage paid at Washington, D.C.

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## ARTICLES

|                                                                                                                   |     |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Counseling in Gerontology<br><i>Richard Blake</i> .....                                                           | 733 |
| New Options for College Study<br><i>Kara Lynne Schmitt</i> .....                                                  | 739 |
| Changes Ahead! Implications of the Vail Conference<br><i>Allen E. Ivey, Jean R. Leppaluoto</i> .....              | 747 |
| A Consensus Method to Reduce Conflict<br><i>Allen P. Main, Albert E. Roark</i> .....                              | 754 |
| Activity Group Guidance: A Developmental Approach<br><i>Bill W. Hillman, John T. Penczar, Reginald Barr</i> ..... | 761 |
| Righting the Wrongs of Writing: Copy Editors Speak Out<br><i>Jaclyn J. Alexander, Judy Wall</i> .....             | 768 |

## IN THE FIELD

|                                                                                             |     |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Paying Students to Learn<br><i>Bernadene V. Allen</i> .....                                 | 774 |
| An Elementary Adjunct: High School Helpers<br><i>Lee C. Schmitt, Larry E. Furniss</i> ..... | 778 |
| Fifteen Women<br><i>Marsha Forest</i> .....                                                 | 782 |

## SPECIAL REPORT

|                                                    |     |
|----------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Closing My Last Volume<br><i>Leo Goldman</i> ..... | 787 |
|----------------------------------------------------|-----|

## POEMS

|                                                        |     |
|--------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| The Man with All the Answers<br><i>Tom Frangicetto</i> | 738 |
| Here and Now<br><i>Samuel T. Gladding</i>              | 746 |
| Noah<br><i>Sibyl Adlen Lewinstein</i>                  | 753 |
| Rekindling<br><i>John Russell</i>                      | 760 |

## DEPARTMENTS

|                        |     |
|------------------------|-----|
| Feedback               | 726 |
| Editorial              | 731 |
| Research in Counseling | 792 |
| Etcetera               | 796 |
| Book Reviews           | 798 |
| Index to Volume 53     | 806 |
| Guidelines for Authors | 820 |

# Feedback

Letters for Feedback should be under 300 words. Those selected for publication may be edited or abridged by the Journal staff.

## They're Too Young for Career Guidance

In view of the increasing emphasis and importance being placed on career education by people in industry and education, I would like to relate a recent encounter I had with the administrator of our school system. I don't know if you can use this information, but it certainly deserves credit (of some sort)! The experience I had blatantly brings home the fact that we still have a long way to go before we begin to see any real and lasting results in the endeavor to make education meaningful to young people.

Our school is a small, rural facility, where the students still consider farming, auto mechanics, and the chores of the housewife to be the realm of career opportunities open to them. I was hired this year as the system's first guidance counselor. As part of my program, I formulated plans to conduct weekly sessions with a group of seventh grade students. These meetings would focus primarily on disseminating occupational information to the students, aiding them in taking a look at themselves as individuals who must one day enter the world of work, and conducting some exercises in valuing and self-awareness.

My stumbling block was not lack of interest and enthusiasm on the part of the students but the selling of the proposal to the superintendent of schools. I would like to close this letter with a direct quote from this man, which I hope ignites some reaction from those individuals working in education. "It sounds senseless. Their questions are meaningless. These kids aren't able to think yet."

JEAN SHERER  
Kirksville, Missouri

## "Counselors" Are an Endangered Species

Now there is a statement that seems to fly in the very face of reason. A vanishing breed you say; what about the client-hungry droves the graduate schools are producing? Yes, and explain the hopeful cast of thousands who audition for bit parts at those national con-

vention placement centers. It is difficult to remember a time when there were more helpers in the "helping profession."

Maybe it's the tide that is dying. We cling to the assumption that titles are not important. Yet we have seemingly moved past the designation "counselor." Have you noticed how many graduate programs in counseling have become programs in counseling *psychology*? When the graduate does acquire a position, pay raises are not always forthcoming, but oh how that title can get jacked up. Suddenly there are Human Potential Advisors and Development Facilitators as well as an occasional Life Planning Consultant.

There may be many reasons for the search for newer and "better" titles for those in the counseling profession. One possibility is a type of professional insecurity that is most vulnerable in this day of ambiguous titles. Behold the counselors. There are "counselors" employed by evangelistic campaigns, dating services, investment firms, and even funeral homes. We are counseled how to live, love, buy, and die.

Is it surprising that counselors trained in the behavioral sciences are seeking a new nomenclature? Somehow the name "counselor" has become devalued. It does not necessarily connote competence or naturally bring forth trust. Yet when was it ever automatic? When did a title have the mystical power to establish a counseling relationship, establish a therapeutic atmosphere, and clear the way for growth?

If in the process of becoming enablers and helpers in the growth process we discard a title, we have simply outgrown a comfortably familiar suit of clothes. However, if we seek professional renewal through the name game by believing that a title invites and creates better counseling relationships, then we have lost something of great value. For then it is not "counselor" that has been devalued, but the counselor.

GARY STRATMAN  
Whittier College, Whittier, California



# CHARLES C THOMAS • PUBLISHER

**PROBLEMS OF DISADVANTAGED AND DEPRIVED YOUTH** edited by John G. Cull, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville, Virginia*, and Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond, Virginia*. (22 Contributors) Problems of youth who have been physically, psychologically and socially marred due to deprivation and disadvantage, are described thoroughly in this book. Chapters on personality and emotion of the economically disadvantaged child, runaway youth and the child of divorce are included along with case studies in disadvantage and drug abuse. '75, 272 pp., 14 tables, \$13.50

**Organization and Administration of PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES** by Howard L. Blanchard, *Univ. of Northern Colorado, Greeley, Colorado*. The goals of instruction, the basic needs of all humans, roles and responsibilities of all humans, roles and responsibilities of guidance team members and their in-service training, and the importance of group work results as opposed to individual credit are among the topics found in this "idea" book. The guidance team includes students, parents, laymen, administrators, psychologists, social workers, teachers, noncertified personnel and community personnel. Students profit to the degree that each guidance team member is an artist in human relations. '74, 148 pp., 17 il., 5 tables, \$7.95

**CAREER GUIDANCE FOR YOUNG WOMEN: Considerations in Planning Professional Careers** edited by Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond, Virginia*, and John G. Cull, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville, Virginia*. (14 Contributors) This book is written by outstanding professional women concerning various professional areas. Intended for young women earnestly seeking information on careers, its prime intent is to offer a practical, realistic approach to career guidance. '74, 224 pp., 7 tables, cloth-\$13.75, paper-\$8.95

**THE COMMUNICATION CONTRACT** by Susan B. Goldstein, *Baruch College of the City Univ. of New York*, and Luther F. Sies, *Lehman College of the City Univ. of New York*. Communication theory, sociological and psychological research, and existential philosophy are synthesized in this volume. Combining the new theoretical construct of the communication contract with tested clinical and education techniques such as communication-centered activities, it provides a unique contribution to the subject of human communication. For teachers, there are actual lesson plans provided that may be easily applied. '74, 384 pp., 36 il., \$12.75

**EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING THROUGH RATIONAL BEHAVIOR TRAINING** by David S. Goodman, *Barkin, Herman and Associates, Milwaukee, Wisconsin*. With the cooperation of Maxie C. Maultsby. Presented is a comprehensive study of rational behavior training, a highly directive method of teaching people how to increase their skill in reasoning so they will be better able to deal with the problems and stresses of daily living. This method is effective in enabling relatively normal people to improve their living skills as well as enabling disturbed people to regain their emotional and mental health. '74, 252 pp., 6 il., \$6.50, paper

**MODIFYING CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOR: A Book of Readings** compiled and edited by Alan R. Brown, *Arizona State Univ., Tempe, Arizona*, and Connie Avery, *Tempe Elementary School District, Tempe, Arizona*. (51 Contributors) This text was written for special education and regular classroom teachers and others who are interested in working with children with behavior and/or learning disorders. Because of the increasing emphasis being put on behavior modification techniques, this publication was developed to combine a sampling of the articles recently published in an effort to disseminate information, stimulate interest and encourage additional pursuits in this area. '74, 296 pp., 28 il., 15 tables, \$12.50

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It's too bad you failed to invite a "rebuttal" or "comment" to Warnath's attack on vocational psychologists and counselors ("Vocational Theories: Direction to Nowhere," February 1975). Assuming the purpose in publishing the article was to air some of the old clichés about the "inhumaneness" and "rigidity" of vocational guidance, I believe the planned presentation of an opposite viewpoint would have better served the purpose. Since the article was very negative and devoid of helpful suggestions on what we should do, the impact on me was flat and depressing—talk about "direction to nowhere"!

Although I'm not an "amoral" vocational theorist, I am a counselor who assists hundreds of students each year in vocational planning and decision-making. Remaking work in America is a nice idea, but in the meantime a lot of people want vocational counseling services and need to make choices about their future training and jobs. Counselors not providing those services will surely contribute to the loss of public support for the entire counseling profession. The current notions of career education, job development, affirmative action, and life/career development don't seem so conservative to me and can really be viewed as continuations of the social reform origins of the vocational guidance movement. And finally, some of the national surveys I've read recently seem to cast doubt on the widespread worker alienation which Warnath worries about. In this time of economic downturn, many people, just like the earlier small farmer and the independent entrepreneur he mentions, are making a job the primary focus of their lives.

ROBERT C. REARDON  
Florida State University, Tallahassee

I found Warnath's article most interesting. I would like to very briefly share an experience which I think relates to occupations and vocations and the direction to take relative to keeping, resigning, or being fired from jobs.

I recently resigned from a position with the Bureau of Prisons for reasons which included differences relative to educational and guidance/counseling approaches. These differences resulted in emotional and working strains in terms of job performance and moti-

vation and family considerations. Upon my resignation I was informed of my unemployment entitlements. When I did submit my claims, I found that my benefits for the first six months had been disallowed because, although I had resigned for good personal reasons, those reasons had nothing to do with the job. In other words, I was being told that the most important concern was to keep the job at all costs—if you don't you'll be penalized. At present I am in the process of appealing this decision.

It is my opinion that Warnath has indeed raised a key issue. It is nice to have theories, but certainly we need to insure that our laws and those who supposedly enforce those laws are attuned to humanistic aspects of occupations and vocations. Work is not something which we do just to do. Work is satisfaction, and work is an entity of many variables. Our laws dealing with unemployment and those in personnel and counseling in vocational areas need to recognize that there is indeed a wide gap between the theoretical and the real.

LUCIAN A. SIEPIELSKI, JR.  
Tarrant County Junior College  
Fort Worth, Texas

I was pleased to see Warnath's succinct and thorough article. His analysis of the current economy and present working conditions was a pleasant relief from the propaganda usually found in government reports of the same topic. Yet I feel that Warnath has criticized our various vocational theories a bit harshly. Admittedly, they are incomplete and vague at times and account for precious little human behavior. Admittedly, when there is a depression and little likelihood for any employment, or when workers are forced to accept underemployment under intolerable working conditions, there is little room for the individual to implement a self-concept. When you are out of work, it doesn't make a lot of difference what type of personality you have.

However, reality for most clients and counselors alike is that work is a financial necessity, regardless of how satisfying it may or may not be. Therefore, it boils down to picking the least deadly poison or selecting the best possible alternative to an unpleasant situation. And it is this choice process that the theories in one way or another are all about. Rather



than invalidating their value, Warnath has increased the importance of their role. Now more than ever clients need as much help as possible in making a choice which is essentially "unpleasant" at best and "catastrophic" at worst.

Let's not abandon our clients just because the economy stinks and working for a living can be a pain in the neck. Warnath is to be congratulated for his contribution. He has not discredited the conventional theories as much as he has forced us to place them in their proper perspective.

STEPHEN G. WEINRACH  
Villanova University  
Villanova, Pennsylvania

I loved Warnath's article! It's fun to read a piece by a courageous author; one is forced to come to grips with his or her own accepted notions which differ from those of the author.

Even though I applaud Warnath's courage, I agree with very little of his argument, for I feel most of it is based on nonempirical data, misinterpretations, and great leaps in logic. I am sure that others will reply to the bulk of his charges, but I would like to make just two points.

First, no sane person is likely to advocate that all work has worth and dignity. For a variety of reasons—low compensation levels, the repetitive or "unclean" nature of the work, the low prestige level of the occupation, etc.—some jobs are lousy. What counselors ought to get across to clients is that individuals bring to all work a worth and a dignity. The distinction is relatively subtle but important.

Second, the idea of increasing worker disillusionment, disenchantment, and alienation in America is so played up by the mass media, best sellers, and social commentators that we frequently fail to pay heed to some relatively hard data that are instructive. A 1974 publication of the U.S. Department of Labor, *Job Satisfaction: Is There a Trend?*, reviews a variety of national polls conducted by the Gallup organization, by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan, and by others and suggests that the overwhelming number of American workers are *basically* satisfied with their jobs. In 1973, for example, about 88 to

90 percent of American workers indicated that they were satisfied with their jobs—a percentage that has not changed appreciably over the past 10 years. Of course, a lot depends on what kind of question is asked of the worker (Quinn et al., in *Survey of Working Conditions* [1971], found that 36 percent of American workers had more education than they thought was needed to do their jobs), but it is difficult to gainsay the conclusion that 9 of every 10 workers in America are fundamentally satisfied.

Again, although I disagree with the substance of the article, I think it is valuable and I shall use it as a teaching tool with my classes. Congratulations to Warnath for his willingness to take a stand—hyperbolic though it be.

STANLEY H. CRAMER  
State University of New York, Buffalo

#### A Different View of "Recruitment Abuses"

I couldn't agree more with Lewis and Warren ("The Counselor and Armed Forces Recruitment," January 1975) on the importance of the high school guidance counselor's role in providing knowledgeable direction for students interested in military enlistment.

However, as a member of the United States Army Recruiting Command, I take exception to several of the authors' references to "recruitment abuses," particularly their statements pertaining to the validity of the enlistment contract; the assertion that pressure precludes recruiters from doing their job conscientiously; and that misrepresentation is prevalent.

First of all, the Army enlistment contract is a binding agreement between the Department of the Army and the enlistee. It is not merely a promise of job or post assignment, but a guarantee. If, for any reason, the enlistee does not receive what is on the contract, he or she has two choices. The enlistee may (a) choose an alternate field of training or assignment or (b) request and receive an honorable discharge from the Army.

Of course there is pressure in recruiting, just as there is pressure in any sales organization. But Army recruiters today are professional career counselors as well as professional salespeople. They are selective, qualitative, aggressive, and knowledgeable about their product. They fully realize that military



life is not for everyone and that the recruiting office door is not a one-way door.

The Army offers employment opportunities in over 300 different occupations, most of which correlate to similar occupations in the civilian economy. The Army can be a career, an apprenticeship, an educational experience, or a means of financing an education.

In planning what to do after high school graduation, young men and women should have as much information as possible to help them make decisions about their futures. With this in mind, it is logical to consider the Army as part of the world of work, along with all civilian sources.

The Army recruiter is an extension of the high school counselor, especially now, with the advent of Project Ahead. This national cooperative education program offers open admission to an applicant at a participating college or university at the same time he or she enters military service. Attending college while in the service under this program, the enlistee has up to 75 percent of educational costs paid for by the Army and receives guidance counseling from the "home" university counselor.

Working together with mutual respect, the high school counselor and the Army recruiter can assure that every student has all the information necessary to make a meaningful decision in relation to the student's skills, interests, and life goals.

RALPH W. BROMAN  
Commander

Louisville District Recruiting Command  
Louisville, Kentucky

Lewis and Warren write of the counselor and armed forces recruitment with something less than the objectivity for which they plead.

They speak of "the life-altering decision to join the armed services" (p. 357) as if this were a one-of-a-kind event. Any career decision—choices in marriage and divorce, staying in school or not—is "life-altering." Some are more significant than entering the armed forces.

The authors state that "there is no correlation between missile electronics and TV repair" (p. 357). Even the lay person would agree that some similarity exists in the two

systems, both essentially electronic and depending upon the basic principles of that field.

One reads, "A recruiter is under too much pressure to be able to give" objective help (p. 358). This should be recognized for what it is—an opinion. There is no objective evidence to support it. It was not qualified with "may," "usually," or "often." Some, maybe many, recruiters are under pressure, but not all, as is implied.

The "armed forces are spending close to a quarter of a billion dollars to convince eighteen- to twenty-three-year-olds that careers with the military usually surround a swimming pool in sunny Hawaii" (p. 358). Where is the evidence for this? If the average high school graduate is so naive as to believe such a pitch, if it were true, then our tax dollars spent on education are a waste. This allegation, besides being incorrect and biased, is an insult to many high school graduates.

These and other points in this article are designed to lead to two conclusions: Counselors are always objective and can be trusted to insure that the potential enlistee has all of the facts, and recruiters are always under pressure and less than honest.

Considerable criticism is due the armed forces for recruiting practices. Some school counselors are antimilitary and unknowledgeable about the armed forces. Some authors of articles in professional journals write from a position of prejudice and pass off opinion as fact. There are even some journal editors who let them.

JOHN J. MARSH  
State Personnel Office  
Santa Fe, New Mexico

#### **A Nonsexist Alternative**

I congratulate you on your effort to eliminate sexist terminology from your journal but would like to comment on your note on page 360 of the January 1975 issue. While I can't think of a reasonable alternative, other than first-year college student, to the word *freshman*, the term *human resource* or *human resources* can many times be substituted for *manpower* without producing awkward sentences.

NANCY BEGIN  
State Department of Labor and Industry  
Trenton, New Jersey

# Editorial

## JUST TO SAY THANKS

I've said most of the things I wanted to say in many editorials during the past six years and in my report in each year's June issue for the past five years. Now all that's left is to say thanks to several thousand people. Thanks:

First of all, to Anita DeVivo, who was manager of APGA publications at the time I was appointed editor-elect in 1968 and who, until she left APGA in 1971, helped us to dream up and translate into print a new vision of a professional journal.

Next, to Judy Wall and her predecessors as Production Editor—Mary Halas and, before her, Leah Jackson. To them all, but mostly to Judy, who has been P&G's Production Editor for three years, thanks for the patience and fastidiousness and good taste that transformed manuscripts into clearly expressed, accurate, and readable articles that were put together into attractive format, and on schedule, month after month, ten times a year.

To Dolores Rather and her predecessors as Administrative Assistant in the APGA Press office, for the intelligent, smooth, and efficient handling every year of some 500 to 600 manuscripts and hundreds of book reviews, letters, and other items.

To Daniel Sinick for six years of informative and sprightly brief reviews (458 in all) in his *Etcetera* column—on schedule and dependably critical every month.

To Willa Garnick, a poetry reviewer par excellence, who helped dozens and dozens of poets to improve their verse and eventually see it in print.

To forty-three people who served as members of the Editorial Board, each for a three-year term, during which each one reviewed dozens of manuscripts and a number of proposals for Special Issues. Their sophisticated judgment and helpful criticism were the foundation of every editorial decision.

To the people who served as Guest Editors of thirteen Special Issues and four Special Features. They made major contributions, at the sacrifice of much time and energy.

To the authors of 3,067 article manuscripts and 598 poems that were submitted during the six-year period. Not all of them were happy about our decisions; in fact, only 605 of the articles were eventually published, plus 124 poems, but they all deserve thanks for having worked and risked.

To the writers of 493 book reviews that we published during the six years. In their case, as with the authors of manuscripts, we were especially pleased with the opportunity to bring new voices to our readers in every issue.

To the six APGA Presidents and Boards of Directors and to the Executive Directors and headquarters staffs with whom I served. They provided good support and, perhaps more important, complete freedom from any kind of undue interference or undesirable pressure.

And finally, thanks to the readers, who have been our reason for existence, and thanks especially to those who let us know of their interest and their reactions to our work. I hope Derald Sue will be as fortunate as I to have so many people to thank. ■ LG

# *Research Award Announced*

In New York on March 25, 1975, during the annual APGA Convention, the APGA Outstanding Research Award for this year was presented to

**Dale J. Prediger,  
John D. Roth, and Richard J. Noeth**

for their article

*"Career Development of Youth: A Nationwide Study"*

which appeared in the October 1974 issue of P&G. The authors were recognized for "their outstanding contribution in the field of counseling and the helping professions through research."

We of the P&G staff are especially gratified by this news. It validates, in a way, our efforts to bring appropriate research coverage into the *Journal*, as described later in this issue in "Closing My Last Volume."



# counseling in gerontology

RICHARD BLAKE

Richard Blake is a Professor of Education at the University of Nebraska at Omaha.

*More attention should be given to the need and potential for counselor involvement in gerontology. In this article the author presents ways in which counselors could be involved in gerontology, and he considers some of the things counselors and counselor education must do in order to prepare for work in this area.*

Middle-aged and older people have been the forgotten and the ignored of APGA. Counseling as a profession has shown little concern for the experience of the middle aged and virtually no concern for the experience of the elderly. This is, admittedly, a strong statement, but it is fundamentally true. Evidence to support the statement is easy to find. A quick review of content in the *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL*, for example, provides an indication of activity related to middle-aged and older people.

My count reveals eight relevant articles in six years (from September 1968 to September 1974). Of these, one is actually a book review (Touchstone 1970). An article by Bascue and Krieger (1974), regarding concerns with death, is aimed at counselors working with clients of various ages. Rosner's (1974) article makes a specific recommendation for the use of "retired" people as aids to counselors. Three articles, one by Buckley (1972), one by Stevens (1973), and one by Manis and Mochizuki (1972), deal directly with aging-related concerns. Though perhaps less obvious, articles by Brandenburg (1974) and Warner (1974) might also be considered relevant.

The November 1973 issue of this journal contains a Special Feature titled "Outlook for the Counseling Specialties"; the Feature is particularly revealing as to the status of old people and problems within APGA associated with aging. Although the articles in that issue by Kunze (1973), Gellman and Murov (1973), Fantaci (1973), and Sinick (1973) all deal with areas of adult counseling, they say as little about the range of human problems associated with aging and being old as articles on counseling specialties for adults could possibly say. In the Overview to the Feature, Odell (1973) identifies what he believes to be the most significant demographic, political, and developmental forces relevant to counseling in the next decade. While he recognizes the "slowing of the birthrate" and the tapering off of elementary school enrollments, he does not include the demographic information that, while the number of Americans under the age of 5 has declined by 5 percent since 1970, the number of Americans who are 65 and over has increased by 9 percent. There are now an estimated 22 million people in the U.S. who are 65 or over; and nearly one out of five Americans is at

least 55 years old. Nor does anyone mention the mounting political impact of either this demographic reality or the increasing political activism by and on behalf of older people—or the resulting legislation. McDaniels (1973) identifies eight “areas where the employment needs will be.” Gerontology is not one of the eight; however, one of the areas titled “Special Orientation” could certainly include gerontology. Interestingly, some special groups are mentioned by McDaniels under Special Orientation: blacks, women, Chicanos, and Native Americans. Although these are given as examples only and are not intended to be an all-inclusive list, the elderly are significant by their omission.

This journal's Special Issue “Women and Counselors” is also interesting for its noninclusion of older women. It pays attention to “mature” women—in Eason's (1972) article, for example. It is difficult to understand, however, why the situation of older women was not given major emphasis in that issue, since the majority

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**“As it has done with sex, our educational system has managed largely to avoid the subject of aging.”**

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of older people are women. The ratio is about 70 men for every 100 women, and the proportion of women is becoming steadily higher. If there is any economically and socially deprived group in our society, it is surely the older, single people. And most such persons are women.

I do not suggest that the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL editor or staff is responsible for the JOURNAL's relative lack of content related to counseling older people. Perhaps this neglect reflects a lack of awareness and activity on the part of the profession generally. And

I do not intend special criticism of the articles mentioned; they simply reflect the general status of the profession.

Fortunately, there are signs that the disinterest in older people and problems associated with aging is ending. The articles mentioned above that deal with aging-related concerns are of recent publication, probably indicating an increase in related activity within the last six years. In addition, the recent creation of an APGA Commission on Middle-Aged and Older Persons is a reflection of change toward greater awareness and interest in this area and an impetus for still more concern and action.

This article identifies some ways in which counselors can contribute to work in gerontology and some things counselors must do if they are to be usefully involved in this area.

## **WHAT COUNSELORS COULD DO**

### **Direct Counseling Service**

Counselors can provide direct counseling services to persons having or anticipating difficulties associated with aging. Life does not end upon graduation. Nor is getting the first job the ultimate or final developmental task. Life planning, decision making, adjusting, and growing are tasks of a lifetime. Counseling need be no less relevant for the experience of middle age or old age than it is for childhood or early adulthood.

The counselor's preparation for assisting people in formulating plans, making decisions, and enhancing personal development is the basis for helping older persons, just as it is for helping younger people. Likewise, the counselor's skills in dealing with feelings and the use of factual information, where relevant to the planning and decision-making process, are also important when counseling older persons.

One area of immediate concern that lends itself to direct counselor service is retirement. Preretirement education

and counseling programs already exist in many areas and have the potential for much wider implementation. Nearly all major school districts have adult or evening education programs that could include classes or workshops on retirement planning. This is also an appropriate subject for adult education programs at community colleges and at colleges of continuing education that often exist within universities. Opportunity for this kind of activity also exists in private industry. Some employers and some unions are concerned with assisting people in the transition to unemployment and are willing to spend money for helpful programs.

Other developmental tasks in which people could be helped by direct counseling services are: changing careers, changing roles in the family, adapting to physical changes, losing loved ones, and facing one's own death. One developmental task faced by many people in mid-life is living with teenage children. Counselors can relate to this area by leading parent effectiveness programs. In one community a minister is teaching a course titled "A Lively Encounter with Death." Topics for the course range from dealing with grief to euthanasia, funeral customs, and the "humor" of death. Counselors could take the lead in this kind of effort.

### **Helping the Helpers**

People in counseling can work to improve the quality of communications between older persons and those who work with them in helping capacities. These people include not only staffs in nursing homes but also those who serve in such areas as recreation, housing, and social welfare. Many programs are being established to serve older people who are not institutionalized. Typically, these programs are staffed by people who have had no special preparation in communication or in establishing helping relationships.

There is increasing acceptance of the idea that counseling and helping are not the exclusive domain of counselors but that many noncounselors can and should help in establishing a broadly therapeutic environment. Also on the increase is the development of techniques for broadening the communications skills of persons in helping positions. These two developments make a teaching role for counselors and counselor educators timely as well as appropriate. I am referring here to the kind of specific skill training advocated by Carkhuff (1972)

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**"Counselors could propagandize on behalf of the dignity of all and be vocal advocates on behalf of old people and their needs."**

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and Gazda (1973). This suggestion is premised on the conviction that there is a need for such assistance and that counselors have the knowledge and skills necessary for making a significant contribution in that direction.

### **Educating about Aging**

Counselors can use their influence to help change people's beliefs and feelings about aging and older people. Aging, like sex, is a fundamental fact of life and a phenomenon of compelling importance. As it has done with sex, our educational system has managed largely to avoid the subject of aging. The involvement of our schools with respect to aging beyond adolescence is almost nil, even in terms of personnel: The absence of old people is absolute. Schools may employ women teachers and men teachers, white teachers and black teachers and Chicano teachers, heterosexual teachers and homosexual teachers, but schools absolutely will not employ any old people as



teachers. Nor will they employ old people as administrators, counselors, or custodians. Rules prohibit. Is this practice based on logic? Custom? Or is it simply prejudice? Or does it really make any difference—since the message to students, whatever the rationale, is clear: Old people don't belong. There is no place for old people; their presence or existence is not important. In this respect our schools seem not only to reflect our society but actually to magnify its attitude toward aging and the aged.

Although Rosner's (1974) suggestion to use retired persons as clerical aides for counselors is perhaps a good idea, it is significant that this suggested role for older people is neither a professional one nor one that necessarily draws on the experiences or potentials of older persons. Also, even though the schools' financial limitations are understandable, volunteer work cannot help but imply that the services gained thereby are of little real value. Why should older persons' remuneration be "that they are giving to the community and making a contribution" (Rosner 1974, p. 67), when the remuneration for clerical work performed by young people typically includes cash? What society is willing to pay for is at least some gauge of what society values.

- Counselors could encourage the active participation of older people in the life of the school generally and could certainly achieve increased involvement of older people in guidance activities in particular. Counselors should be able to find ways in which older people could fully and appropriately use their abilities.
- Counselors could exert influence on curriculum by at least raising questions about the way old people are presented in instructional materials.
- Counselors could lead in the development of programs that would help identify beliefs and feelings about aging and

would change misconceptions and clarify values related to aging.

- Counselors could be better models with respect to their own attitudes and beliefs.
- Counselors could propagandize on behalf of the dignity of all persons, including old persons, and be vocal advocates on behalf of old people and their needs.

#### **PREPARING FOR COUNSELOR EFFECTIVENESS**

Although the aging-related needs of people are real, and although counseling has much to offer, counselor education has not seriously addressed itself to middle-aged and older people. As a result, counselors typically have more potential than immediate readiness for work in gerontology. Counselors who want to become involved in gerontology will need to prepare themselves in three areas.

First, counselors who work in gerontology must become aware of their own feelings and prejudices regarding aging and older people. The issues related to aging are loaded with values and with the most powerful of emotions. The meaning of life and death for ourselves, for our relatives and friends, and for others is a central issue. Counselors must clarify their own values and feelings on such issues as the meaning of work, compulsory retirement, institutionalization and home care for the disabled, and euthanasia. How do counselors feel about their own aging? In what ways would their personal feelings bias their work in this area? Counseling has generally stressed the importance of counselors knowing themselves and "where they are coming from," but not in relation to their own aging or their attitudes toward older people. Counselors must learn about themselves as aging people and as people who relate to the old.

Second, counselors need to be reedu-

cated to replace myths with facts. Much of what counselors (and the general public) believe to be true of the aging process and of older people is simply not true. Do many counselors know that only 5 percent of the people over 65 are institutionalized? Do many counselors believe that senility is the norm? How many are aware of the physiological changes in vision and hearing that are associated with aging and of the behavioral effects of such changes? How many have a realistic awareness of the sexuality of older people? Unfortunately, counselors are not much—if any—more knowledgeable about the aging process and older people than is the general public, for whom lack of information and misinformation are the norm.

Third, counselor education programs must help counselors become aware of the occupational, educational, and social information relevant to older people. Because counselor education has been lax in this respect, counselors have been unable to use the factual information relevant to older people as they typically have with younger people. Counselors know about entry level jobs and about the world of work, but they typically know little about retirement plans. They know about college entrance requirements, but not about the requirements for Medicare. They know about referral agencies for youth, but not about their local nutrition program for the elderly. They know about the Girl Scouts, but not about the American Association of Retired Persons.

Counselors must learn about the world of aging and older people. But it's not enough to learn, not enough to demonstrate an interest. Counselors must not only know; they must do. ■

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## **The Man with All the Answers**

Again and again  
You stumble through the door  
And slouch in that chair.  
Slurring your words and  
Slipping off your own tongue.

Wait like a customer  
For the magic probe that cures.  
I've got it here somewhere, kid.  
Somewhere, in this disheveled desk  
Of a mind.

Your faith gives me a pain.  
Do you also believe in heaven and hell?  
Your hope is a knife  
That severs me from comfort  
And carves my paper shield to shreds.

I'll sit here with you.  
We'll grind it out or  
We'll grind it in.  
But help me help you  
Know the difference.

**TOM FRANGICETTO**  
Langhorne, Pennsylvania



# new options for college study

Traditionally the university has been considered one of the major influences in the development of civilizations (Henderson 1968). Throughout its history, the U.S. has recognized the importance of an education, and most Americans would agree that a postsecondary education is a vital component of the American system. Nevertheless, until recently most people have thought of a formal education as the special province of the young. "Traditionally, American colleges have discriminated against adult students whose work or family responsibilities prevent them from returning to the campus for regularly scheduled classes. For such people a college education is very difficult, if not impossible, to attain. The present system of higher education is oriented to the 'college-age' population. As a result, human potential is going to waste and society suffers" (Troutt 1971, p. 2).

Recently the traditional institutional system has begun to take a closer look at what it has to offer those over the age of twenty-five. Responding to society's demands for alternative forms of education and to the financial necessity for enrolling more students, institutions have sought to develop programs that would serve and attract a wider variety of students. Colleges have become more concerned about the individual desires of students and less concerned about the needs of the administration. The emphasis is moving toward equal access and equal opportunity; colleges can no longer select students to fit the institution but must design the institutions and special programs to fit the students. Priority for new opportunities in higher education should be considered for persons who are often denied access to it, especially veterans, minorities, low-income persons, shift workers, housewives, the handicapped, prison inmates, the elderly, and those seeking additional career education.

The instructional and educational

## KARA LYNNE SCHMITT

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*In an effort to meet the changing demands American society is placing on educational institutions, colleges and universities have begun reexamining their educational practices and philosophy. Here the author discusses two alternatives to traditional classroom learning: (a) universities' acceptance of standardized examination results as evidence of learning and (b) "external degree" programs, which involve a reorganization of the higher education system. She discusses one such program in detail. Both of these changes will encourage and enable more people to pursue college degrees; they will also demand new or redefined roles for counselors in and out of the academic community.*

methods being implemented or reviewed by many institutions should enable individuals to obtain a formal education in ways best suited to their personal needs and wants. Instead of restricting education to the classroom, many colleges and universities are beginning to accept the results of standardized examinations as a method for substantiating college-level learning acquired outside the academic environment and are also starting to grant credit for experiential learning and thus remove many of the traditional educational requirements. In order to provide effective guidance, counselors need to understand both of these educational innovations.

### **IMPACT FOR COUNSELORS**

Administrators and teachers are not the only ones who must become more informed about the nontraditional modes of education. Immediate attention should be given to student guidance to encourage the use of existing and new alternative methods of earning college credits and degrees. To be more effective, counselors in all settings—schools, colleges, prisons, employment agencies, clinics, industries—have a responsibility to themselves and their potential clients to learn more about the academic opportunities now becoming available to a wider segment of the population.

Counselors need to ask themselves whether they could effectively inform the following five individuals who have not yet earned a baccalaureate degree of new options available to them: (a) a college assistant professor and director at a center for emotionally disturbed children who has published in numerous well-known journals in the field of psychoanalysis; (b) a prison inmate who was previously unsuccessful at a vocational-technical school but now believes that an education is important; (c) an authority in the areas of acoustics and

neural perceptivity who has published in recognized journals since the early 1930s; (d) a former assistant commissioner in a large federal agency, now retired; (e) a housewife who has accumulated over 150 college credits but has never received her degree.

These and other individuals want an academic education but have been denied the opportunity to secure it because they are too old, are confined to a prison, have to earn a living, and so on. Today's counselor must be aware of the needs of these potential atypical college students and know of the institutions or programs that will best fit their needs. Knowing about the standardized testing programs and external degree programs will help counselors adequately work with those individuals previously discriminated against by the academic community.

### **TRADITIONAL EXAMINATIONS SERVE A NONTRADITIONAL PURPOSE**

Standardized college-level examinations have become the more widely accepted of the two alternatives to traditional classroom education. An institution accepts these examinations to the extent that it is more concerned about what a person has learned—regardless of how—than about the number of credit hours accumulated.

One reason that counselors and academicians accept the results from these examinations is that the tests generally have been normed on the traditional college student. Therefore, the referent population is a known entity to persons who have gone through the traditional system. Another reason is the ease with which an individual's knowledge can be appraised. A college can determine what is an appropriate score for granting credit and then follow that policy each time an applicant presents examination scores. This implies, of course, that the counselor working with a student or potential student knows the



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**"If an education is an acceptable substitute for experience, then some forms of experience should be accepted in lieu of a formal classroom education."**

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acceptable scores. The college counselor should know this information—but what about the nonacademic counselor? Unfortunately, not many institutions publish this information. In 1972, 89 percent of the colleges and universities surveyed stated that they accepted the results of some standardized examinations, but fewer than 3 percent published their policies (Ruyle, Geiselman & Hefferlin 1974). This means that counselors outside the college environment need to know how and where to learn about colleges' policies on granting credit.

The most frequently accepted examination is the College Level Examination Program (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.), which is accepted by over 2,000 colleges and universities. It consists of two types of examinations: the General Examination, composed of five tests and analogous to a liberal arts education, and the Subject Examinations, including tests in a variety of areas such as computer programming, money and banking, and hematology. Counselors should also be familiar with the College Proficiency Examination Program (State Education Department of New York, Albany), the United States Armed Forces Institute (which was available to all active duty armed service personnel prior to July 1, 1974), and a newly developed program entitled the National Occupational Competency Testing Institute (Educational Testing Service). Also, counselors should check with their state departments of education and with local institutions of higher education to learn what other standardized examination programs are available.

Counselors who are knowledgeable about these programs and who encourage their use will be providing an important service to many who have been unable to obtain a formal education. In comparison with tuition costs, these examinations are relatively inexpensive; and they enable individuals to provide acceptable proof of their learning. Successful completion of these examinations may be the necessary impetus for individuals, previously unsure of their ability to pursue an education, to compete with the traditional college student.

#### **A NEW FORMAT FOR HIGHER EDUCATION**

A second change now taking place is the reevaluation and reorganization of colleges and universities themselves. They have begun to realize that they cannot remain static but rather must accept a new responsibility. "What we are discussing is moving from a closed system to an open system; recognizing that a collegiate or any postsecondary educational training pattern should not be rigid and fixed, but, rather, flexible, open and responsive to individuals and their changing needs" (Feingold 1973, p. 2). The Carnegie Commission has reinforced this idea by explaining that institutions need to serve the abilities, ages, life styles, and career goals of their rapidly diversifying clientele (VanDyne 1972). If an education is an acceptable substitute for experience, then some forms of experience should be accepted in lieu of a formal classroom education.

The new format being explored and implemented by many institutions is the "external degree." This degree is "awarded to an individual on the basis of some program of preparation (devised either by himself or by an educational institution) which is not centered on traditional patterns of residential collegiate or university study" (Houle 1973, pp. 14-15). There are many approaches to



this nontraditional format: granting advanced standing for prior experiential learning, removing residential requirements, providing greater independent study, and providing the opportunity for each student to design an appropriate curriculum, to name a few. "Perhaps the only common characteristic at present is a desire to open up the academic system and provide a wide diversity of options for a student body no longer made up exclusively of young postadolescents" (Houle 1973, p. 14).

It is estimated that one-third of all American colleges and universities are engaged in some type of unconventional program (Houle 1973). Some of the institutions offering the external degree are: Eagle University (a consortium of 9 universities), Empire State College of the State University of New York, Florida International University, Minnesota Metropolitan State College, the Regents External Degree Program (New York), and the University Without Walls (composed of 25 member institutions). The premise of these institutions is flexibility and individual learning. Many students find that being able to work at their own pace eliminates some of the frustrations that result from incorporating their job, family responsibilities, and educational ambitions into an exhausting timetable. One of the most important principles at these institutions is that effective learning derives from purposes and needs that are important to the individual. A second principle is that learning occurs in varied ways and places and that styles of learning differ from person to person.

### EMPIRE STATE COLLEGE

One institution that is committed to the premises just mentioned is Empire State College. In the fall of 1970 Chancellor Ernest Boyer sent to the Trustees of the State University of New York a memorandum outlining the direction the university system should take. "Every basic

assumption on which we've built in the past is being sharply challenged. We are re-examining such fundamental questions as who should go to college, what and where and how students should study—and for how long? . . . We must now develop a higher learning system that is not restricted to a rigid curriculum, a single campus or a fixed calendar. The new system must be geared to a pattern of offerings which permits each student to study what he wants, when he wants it, and at a place convenient to him" (Empire State College 1972, pp. 18–19).

In September 1971 the first Empire State College learning center (miniature college) opened in Manhattan. The college provides an education that focuses on student needs, and it does so without costly classrooms, libraries, laboratories, and dormitories. Instead, ESC uses existing resources within other educational institutions and the community. Learning centers are also located throughout the state, and more are being planned. This enables students to attend a conveniently located college; and, if they move within the state, they are likely to find an ESC learning center there. In addition, students who leave the state are able to continue their study at ESC because of the independent study format.

Administrators and faculty at ESC believe that "the quality of education will suffer if students are treated as standardized products on some assembly line. ESC's strongest conviction is that students of all ages and situations can be treated as people, as individual human beings, and that the quality of education will rise as ways are found to help people learn what *they* need and want to know" (Empire State College 1972–73, p. 4).

Since ESC is committed to the idea of individual differences and the belief that significant college-level learning can and does occur outside the classroom, students are awarded credit for their prior experiential learning as well as for their

traditional academic learning. It is not important where the learning occurred but rather what was learned.

During the first few months that a student is enrolled at ESC, he or she prepares a Degree Program (curriculum) and a request for Advanced Standing. Assistance is given by the assessment counselor and/or a faculty mentor. "Given the present wide variety of students, the continuing explosion of knowledge, and the emergence of new fields of academic concern, the curriculum should no longer be the exclusive concern of the faculty. Responsibility for its design and content should be shared by faculty members and students" (Boyer & Keller 1971, p. 49). Students at ESC are responsible for designing their own Degree Program, which includes all previous college-level learning plus the work to be done at ESC through contracts. The Degree Program describes the student's past, present, and future learning and integrates three principal elements: (a) the student's goals, capacities, and aspirations; (b) a demonstration of achievement in the student's area of concentration; and (c) the areas of general education that provide breadth of study.

After students have designed their Degree Programs, they can make an application for Advanced Standing (credit for prior learning). This involves the preparation of a portfolio that identifies, describes, and documents the prior learning. Portfolio preparation is not an easy task, for it often involves converting the intangible to the concrete. Students must articulate their learning so that others can evaluate it. They must explain their goals and indicate how these goals are consistent with the educational goals of the college. Finally, they must provide appropriate documentation and evaluation to support the claim for credit; the mere assertion of learning is not sufficient.

No institution, including ESC, is in the business of validating the worth of an

individual. Nor can a student receive credit for a potpourri of learning that has no relationship to the Degree Program. Students must present a solid case that their past learning has contributed to their educational development and is consistent with the college's educational goals.

Upon approval of a Degree Program and request for Advanced Standing, the student can work on the ESC contracted study, which may involve independent study or courses at other educational institutions. Each contract is evaluated by the appropriate subject matter mentor, and upon successful completion of all contracts, as stated in the Degree Program, a student can graduate.

Because of the many innovative practices at ESC, the college has been con-

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**"Students must present a solid case that their past learning has contributed to their educational development and is consistent with the college's educational goals."**

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cerned with the maintenance of high educational standards. Students are expected to produce quality work in order to graduate. One indication that standards have been maintained is the fact that over 75 percent of the first graduating class who applied to graduate school were accepted (study based on the first 131 graduates, over half of whom applied to graduate school).

## CONCLUSION

The traditional college format has been around for many years, and the American philosophy of "as much education as possible for all" has not been attained. The two alternatives to classroom learning discussed here should help make this



philosophy more of a reality. Opportunities are becoming available to many persons who previously thought a college education was unavailable to them. The new procedures are not error free: Cut-off scores on standardized examinations may be too high or low, credit may be granted for non-college-level learning, educational standards may be lowered. But with time these problems can be corrected.

It is not anticipated, nor even desired, that the traditional institutions of higher education will disappear. The alternative of standardized examinations may be valuable to all individuals; the external degree may not. Although nontraditional institutions potentially are able to educate persons of all ages, backgrounds, and interests, such institutions are not for everyone. Some students may want or need the traditional campus-oriented education to provide necessary social activity and interaction. Students interested in science and pre-med degrees will need laboratory facilities that may not be available at nontraditional institutions. Both older and typical students who do not have family or peer support for their academic decision may need the support of fellow classmates. Others whose goals are not well delineated or who are undisciplined might be unsuccessful and easily discouraged in the nontraditional setting and would do better in the more structured environment of a traditional college.

Even though not everyone will be interested in or suited to nontraditional education, the number of people who are interested in it is sufficient to require a redefinition or extension of the counselor's role. In many academic communities, the counselor will not be telling students what to take but will be helping them articulate their goals and determine their curriculum to a greater extent than before. Instead of merely reviewing a college transcript to determine placement, the counselor will be examining a

variety of prior learning experiences. The counselor will give students guidance about the learning they have acquired: how it fits in with their goals, how to document it appropriately, and how to use it in preparing an educational program.

Counselors working in nonacademic settings—prisons, hospitals, industries, military posts, nursing homes—must become aware of programs best suited to their clients' needs. Special programs, some of them listed below, have been established to provide such persons with an education. In order that these programs continue, counselors need to inform their clients of the opportunities available.

- Fairleigh Dickinson University offers tuition-free courses to all New Jersey residents over the age of 65. There are no entrance requirements, and students can take courses for credit or noncredit (Morrison 1972).
- The University of Kentucky provides free enrollment for anyone over 65. Courses, either for credit or noncredit, can be taken at the bachelor's, master's, and even PhD levels (Southern Regional Educational Board 1974).
- Glassboro (New Jersey) State College sponsors a program that provides a college education for prisoners at the Leesburg State Penitentiary (Humphreys 1972).
- The NewGates project in four states combines study inside the prison with study on campus. This is the only program providing study release time for maximum security inmates (Humphreys 1972).
- The University Independent Study program, sponsored by Xerox and 10 major universities, is an example of the education-work interaction. This program enables Xerox workers to continue their education at home while receiving guidance from professors at nearby par-



ticipating universities (Educational Testing Service 1973).

- Eagle University is composed of 9 universities from Tennessee, Kentucky, and Florida. Courses are offered on the military posts. Every quarter these institutions offer over 100 college undergraduate and graduate courses, as well as vocational courses (Southern Regional Educational Board 1974).

Since counselors are important resource persons regarding educational opportunities, it is imperative that they keep abreast of the development of programs designed to accommodate the atypical student. Valley's *Increasing the Options* (1972) summarizes the various current and prospective nontraditional programs and institutions. For information on new trends in education, counselors can contact the Educational Testing Service's Office of External Degree Programs. Counselors should also express their own concern, where it exists, for the establishment and increased availability of alternatives to traditional education. ■

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## Here and Now

I feel at times  
that I'm wasting my mind  
as we wade through  
your thoughts and emotions  
With my skills  
I could be in a world-renowned clinic  
with a plush padded office  
a soft swivel chair  
and a sharp secretary  
at my command  
Instead of here  
in a pink cinderblock room  
where it leaks when it rains  
and the noise  
seeps under the door  
like water,  
But then in leaving  
you pause at the door  
your voice spilling out in a whisper  
"Thanks for being here when I hurt."  
At that moment my fantasies end  
as reality  
like a wellspring begins  
Filling me  
with life-giving knowledge  
as it cascades through my mind  
That in meeting you  
when you're flooded with pain  
I discover myself.

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# changes ahead! implications of the Vail Conference

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*Counseling practice is heavily influenced by psychological models. The summer 1973 conference at Vail, Colorado, examined the role of the applied psychologist. The recommendations of this conference are new and powerful and are likely to reverberate throughout the helping professions. The authors, both of whom were delegates to that conference, discuss major conference recommendations and their implications for professional counseling practice.*

Where can the counseling practitioner of today find guidelines for action in a changing world? One key source of innovative guidance for future helping roles is the 1973 Vail Conference on professional psychology. This conference could polarize American psychology and, by implication, those who practice within the confines of APGA. What we hope, however, is that the important and sometimes radically different recommendations of this conference will result in substantial changes in our professional training and practice in the not-too-distant future.

We present in this article some of the key recommendations of the Vail Conference; undoubtedly they can and will change both counselor education and counseling practice. But first we wish to consider the relationship between psychological models and counseling models. Training and practice in counseling and guidance are based heavily on conceptual frameworks developed by

psychologists. Although some people, particularly those in college student personnel, are well aware of the importance of sociological, anthropological, and political data, the predominant practices of APGA members are rooted in psychological theories and knowledge.

Our best-known professional models (Ellis, Rogers, Skinner) are psychologists. Our counseling training programs are modeled predominantly after clinical and counseling psychology models. The professional practice of the school counselor, at least in idealized terms, most closely resembles that of the clinical or community psychologist practitioner.

Counselor training programs have been heavily influenced by the Greyston Conference on counseling psychology (Thompson & Super 1964), which in turn basically endorsed another APA report produced twelve years earlier (American Psychological Association 1952). The essence of the earlier report was that the counseling psychologist is a



practitioner and a scientist. The 1949 Boulder Conference on clinical psychology (Raimy 1950) clearly affirmed the scientist-practitioner model, which since then has become virtually the gospel for both clinical and counseling psychology.

The impact of these conferences on the professional practice of guidance in the U.S. cannot be overemphasized: The scientist-practitioner model dominates our training programs. The present status quo in training and practice has been criticized (Carkhuff 1972b; Ivey 1970, 1973), and the *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL*, under its present editor, represents a battleground between those oriented to professional statements that are twenty years old and those who desire a new approach.

### THE VAIL CONFERENCE

A new view of helper roles may be emerging. In the summer of 1973 the National Institute of Mental Health and the American Psychological Association held a new type of conference on the future of applied psychology. One hundred invited participants plus about fifty observers from governmental agencies and related professional organizations comprised the conference personnel. For the first time substantial numbers of women, minority group members, and consumers of services were represented. Former conferences had included mostly department heads and deans, directors of clinical programs, and nationally known authors and researchers; these groups were represented at Vail, but they did not predominate.

The recommendations of this conference are staggering in their complexity and scope. Depending on the reader's point of view, the recommendations may appear to represent the future direction of helping, may seem naively optimistic, or may even seem destructive. Nonetheless, after the initial reactions have been

recorded, those who seek to change their existing patterns of training will for the first time have a serious set of recommendations that endorse, even demand, change. No longer can the department head or dean say, "We can't go out on a limb by ourselves. Other people aren't doing it." The limb has been built by this conference. The issue is whether this new movement will develop and grow or whether it will wither and die.

### SELECTED RECOMMENDATIONS

There is no attempt here to abstract the full complexity of the Vail Conference. Perhaps these selected recommendations will encourage APGA members to obtain the preliminary APA report

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**"The recommendations of this conference are staggering in their complexity and scope. For the first time there is a serious set of recommendations that endorse, even demand, change."**

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(Korman 1974) and start serious discussion of the conference recommendations and their implications. The following quotations from the Vail recommendations are taken verbatim from the conference's mimeographed working papers, which were voted by the participants. The Korman report is a preliminary statement distilling these recommendations; a later publication will detail the specific guidelines in considerably more detail.

#### **Awareness of Value Issues**

*"Professional psychology training programs at all levels (continuing professional development, doctoral, masters, bachelors, pre-bachelors) should provide information on the potential political nature of the practice of psychology. This does not imply that a 'right'*

answer is to be suggested; rather the very serious implications of practice on society become part of the awareness of every psychologist."

This recommendation went on to state that information on the distribution of wealth in America (Gans 1972); the impact of therapy on individuals in society (Halleck 1971; Szasz 1961); and the importance of consciousness-raising in race relations, the women's movement, and the men's movement are important parts of any professional's training program and practice. We therefore need to be sure that our attitudes and values enhance society; we cannot blindly mold a society that is not responsive to all people.

Counseling, for the most part, has avoided these tough issues. Our prime value stance has been that "it is nice to be nice." When issues have become complex, we have been told to become "objective" social scientists or "detached" helpers. It has become easy to study society, and in our inaction we have failed to be aware that this inaction is designed to maintain the status quo. This recommendation makes it clear that we must develop new experiences that assist the student and the teacher to explore their impact on society. Counseling on a one-to-one basis is no longer adequate to meet today's problems. In fact, it often supports inequities and fails to deal with basic causal factors.

The following resolution shows that the conference attenders were cognizant of the need for professionals to "own" their value positions:

*"Because of the inequitable distribution of psychological services we should urge the providers to redistribute their efforts through the following means:*

a. *University departments, faculty and students should get involved in unserved publics by providing the services needed as a part of the training programs.*

b. *Department programs which make specific efforts to meet the needs of underserved*

*groups and geographical areas should merit priority of funds available from granting agencies."*

Too often the counselor has worked with the economically advantaged college-bound. One of the major challenges is whether or not we can effectively serve those whose background is different from our own.

### **Human and Cultural Diversity**

*"The provision of professional services to persons of culturally diverse backgrounds by persons not competent in understanding and providing professional services to such groups shall be considered unethical. . . . It shall be equally unethical to deny such persons professional services because the present staff is inadequately prepared. . . . It shall be the obligation of all service agencies to employ competent persons or to provide continuing education for the present staff to meet the service needs of the culturally diverse populations it serves."*

This recommendation is perhaps the most powerful and important statement of the entire conference. In plain language it means that if you are of the predominantly white male power structure, you do not necessarily have the key to a rich and full life for those coming from different backgrounds. We should encourage alternative life styles, suggesting more options than the stereotypic male and female sex roles allow (Lepaluoto, Engin & Fodor 1973).

This resolution means that we must recognize that white middle-class values may be right for some but that other value systems can operate effectively for others. The counselor therefore needs to be aware of the potential for psychological imperialism by untrained persons who think they are capable of working with diverse human groups (Carkhuff 1972a). If this recommendation is taken seriously, it means that all psychologists, counselors, teachers, and professors who wish to work with people different from themselves need to deal with issues of



personal and institutional oppression in regard to race, sex, religion, age, and ethnic prejudice. They then need to develop expertise in and skills for working with these groups, which means that the consumers of these skills should be heavily involved in training professionals in these areas.

Participation by consumers in the control and distribution of psychological services appeared as a strong recommendation from numerous task groups. The spirit of these recommendations is that client populations ought to be involved in helping determine what is "done to them" by professionals; and clients should be equal and active participants in evaluating the effectiveness of professionals who deliver these services.

*"The public should be incorporated into the evaluation process. A mechanism is needed for incorporating community and public objectives. The aim is to produce change, not merely to set standards."*

Implementation of this concept requires real, not advisory, participation by students, rehabilitation clients, employment counselors, and other client populations in the development and evaluation of guidance and personnel services.

### **The Scientist-Practitioner Model**

*"The development of psychological science has sufficiently matured to justify creation of explicit professional programs, in addition to programs for training scientists and scientist-professionals."*

This resolution may have the deepest impact on the profession, because the burden of being both a scientist and a professional has been lying heavily on faculty members in counselor training programs. Stories of expert counselor/therapists who fail to obtain tenure due to lack of research or publication are legion. People's status as professionals tends to depend more on what they write

than on what they do—an unusual case in which words speak louder than actions! Fully following this recommendation would cause substantial status changes for practicing helpers.

An emphasis on theory as opposed to practice appears in our curriculums. Those involved in clinical training or applied practice are clearly seen as having lower status in training departments than those who are more research-centered. The major implication of this recommendation to include professional training as a legitimate alternative to the scientist-professional model may be a means of changing the reward system, including both the financial and status benefits. This in turn may open the way to more experimentation, relevance, and variety in our training programs.

### **Individual Vs. Program Accreditation**

For the most part, typical content issues of training programs (courses, practicum, etc.) as represented by the Grey-ston or Boulder conferences were not considered. However, one recommendation relating to this area may be of special interest to members of APGA.

*"Complete evaluation of a training program must include an evaluation not only of the content of the program but also evaluation of the graduates when they complete the program and at various points in their later careers."*

Continuing professional development was a central focus of the Vail Conference. No longer can we feel that our professional training is over when we receive degrees and certification.

To ascertain the effectiveness of training programs, it was suggested in a recommendation that a national survey be undertaken, the survey designed to explore the "interpersonal effectiveness and personal motivation" of graduates in the helping professions at the doctoral, master's, and specialized undergraduate levels. One interesting implication of



such a study is its potential for revealing whether or not those with higher degrees are indeed more competent than their less highly paid colleagues who do not have as many formal credentials.

A great deal of controversy at the conference focused on psychologists at the prebachelor's, bachelor's, master's, and doctoral levels and the distinctions among them. Hot debate centered on whether or not to admit subdoctoral individuals into the realm of "psychologists." There was virtual unanimity of agreement, however, that helping as a profession has been far too restrictive.

Competencies and the importance of providing real career opportunities for helping personnel were considered in the following recommendation:

*"Personal competencies, skills, and related experiences should be applied as equivalents in lieu of specific academic requirements in meeting formal requisites for the performance of certain activities and for salary levels associated with designated positions in a functional career ladder."*

A general theme of the conference was the importance of identifying and assessing competencies of psychologists. Time-defined rather than competency-defined degree programs may well be on their way out.

### **Training for All of Us**

*"We . . . ask graduate and undergraduate programs to reexamine their curricula and their models. We urge more emphasis on training in primary prevention on the serious emotional problems of psychologists and other people (which especially include racism and sexism). We urge that educational programs in psychology at all levels help students understand the social and political origins of human distress and show students how to become advocates for the disadvantaged and disenfranchised."*

This highly explicit statement is very much in accord with the positions taken

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**"The words *personnel* and *guidance* imply and have long been associated with value neutrality, distance from the client, and adjustment to the existing social system."**

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in several Special Issues of this journal—the social revolution (Lewis, Lewis & Dworkin 1971); Asians (Sue 1973); blacks (Smith 1970); Chicanos, Puerto Ricans, and Native Americans (Palmares 1971); and women (Lewis 1972). In addition, there seems to be increasing concern with primary prevention and human development as a central task of the helper. How much our profession is changing is evidenced in numerous articles (e.g., Kuriloff 1973; Smith 1974; Weinrach 1973); two Special Issues of this journal—one on psychological education (Ivey & Alschuler 1973) and one on outreach activities (Parker 1974); and a Special Feature on the outlook for the counseling specialties (Odell 1973).

### **NEXT STEPS FOR APGA**

Clearly, serious consideration of the issues raised by the Vail Conference cannot leave professional counseling and personnel work where they are now. We need to work in an interdependent way with other professional organizations such as the American Psychological Association, the National Association of School Psychologists, and the National Education Association.

Perhaps the next step is for APGA to call its own conference and give itself a new name, one that represents the latest stage in our growth: "The Association for Human Development." The words *personnel* and *guidance* imply and have long been associated with value neutrality, distance from the client, and adjustment to the existing social system.

Human development suggests that the role of the helper is more than maintaining the status quo. Human development demands that counselors free themselves and their clients from societal constraints that reduce people's opportunities to reach their full humanness. ■

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## Noah

I'm O.K., I'm really O.K. now.  
Mellaril is a wonderful pill.  
I'm fine, I'm really just fine now.  
This job should be just the thing for me.

It's a nice quiet job, fitting wires into lamps.  
I don't have to talk to many people.  
I don't have to hurry or worry about whether someone else  
Is doing better than I am.

I'm O.K., I'm really O.K.  
Everybody sweats a little and has a lump in the stomach  
When they are waiting to meet the boss.  
Will he see how hard it is for me?

When I was well, I had my own shop.  
I made toys of all kinds and was a man of means.  
What went so wrong?  
The flood of fear drowned me for three long years.

Now everything is gone—my wife, my shop, my beautiful toys;  
The world is like an empty house.  
Echoes of former days come to me in dreams.  
Where, where has my world gone?

"You will have to start over," the doctor said.  
He sent me to that guy who counseled and tested and questioned me.  
He decided I was worth a try.  
He seemed to know how scared I get sometimes, for no reason.

He seemed to care (I don't know why)  
That I find myself, my wife, my shop.  
"You are still good with your hands;  
Let's start over now to fill your empty life."

This job is only a beginning,  
So I'll put wires into lamps  
And earn my money and save some.  
I'll find a little shop and begin again.

And just when things seem fine,  
I'll build myself an Ark,  
In case the flood of fear crashes and crushes  
Into my life again.

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# a consensus method to reduce conflict

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*The authors describe a five-step model of conflict reduction suitable for use by practicing counselors. They present the model in how-to-do-it fashion, supplementing it with illustrations. They describe the reactions of eight counselors who used the model in 37 conflict cases and present the responses of the persons involved in the conflicts.*

"I want you to transfer Johnny out of my class immediately. If I never see him again, that's fine with me."

"Can you help me?" I just can't get along with my sister."

Counselors often find themselves in the middle of disagreements, arguments, disputes, fights, and other assorted conflicts. Although standard counselor training helps counselors deal with conflict, many counselors feel that they could be more effective if they had specific guidelines for what to do in conflict situations. We present here a method by which counselors can constructively intervene in such situations.

## SOURCES OF CONFLICT

Very little literature is available regarding interpersonal conflict reduction; nevertheless, to put the proposed model of conflict reduction into perspective, it is helpful to consider the nature and sources of conflict. Conflict is an interac-

tive phenomenon to which all parties contribute. Each party to a conflict has his or her own ideas, information, and reactions, which he or she communicates to the other parties. The conflict is maintained through interaction in which each party contributes to the conflict.

Conflict may develop for a number of reasons. Competition, or conflict of interest, is perhaps the most common. Stated simply, this occurs when two or more people want the same thing and there is not enough for all. Conflicts also commonly arise because of differences in value beliefs (Aubert 1965). The control of power enters into almost all conflict situations. The major questions usually are: Who has the power base? Who controls the situation? The question of power arises in much of the writing on conflict, since conflict reduction always seems to threaten someone's power or control (Converse 1968). Many times conflict arises from misperception or missed perception on the part of the

people involved. That is, their perception of a situation is unclear or distorted (misperception), or they have completely overlooked details and aspects of a situation (missed perception). Nye (1973), Festinger (1957), and Boulding (1971) all speak of misperceptions in their writings on conflict.

In brief, conflict is something to which all who are involved contribute and which in some manner affects them all. Conflict is maintained through communication and interaction and is not simply the result of one party's desire. The implications for conflict reduction are that somehow the interaction must be changed and that seeking solutions outside of the interaction is not likely to be beneficial.

Conflict should not be viewed with the negativity that the word seems to imply. Conflict can be profitable if managed appropriately. Our views are very similar to Gordon's (1970); we believe that conflict is not necessarily bad and that potential, if not actual, conflict is a reality in any relationship. Actually, relationships without conflicts may be unhealthier than those with frequent conflicts. The critical factor is how conflicts are resolved, not how many occur. Dysfunctional ways of dealing with conflict can harm the parties involved; dealt with properly, however, conflict can be a growth experience.

#### **BASIS FOR CONSENSUS MODEL**

The proposed conflict reduction model is based on the assumptions that: (a) conflict arises primarily from misperception or missed perception on the part of the parties involved; (b) face-to-face working through of conflicts is the most constructive approach to resolving interpersonal conflicts; and (c) parties to a conflict, if they are not placed in a win-lose situation, tend to arrive at mutually beneficial solutions.

The model was developed over a

period of approximately five years and underwent considerable modification during that time. It is based on the perceptual field theory concept that behavior is the function of the perceptions existing for any individual at the moment of behaving and that people's failure to comprehend this is responsible for much human misunderstanding (Combs, Avila & Purkey 1971). The original development was based primarily on the reflection model proposed by Rogers (1953a, 1953b) and on the models that are used in industry and in which the parties to a conflict are brought together and their perceptions of one another clarified (Blake, Mouton & Sloma 1969).

In a study conducted primarily to obtain information that would be used in

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**"Conflict should not be viewed with the negativity that the word seems to imply. Conflict can be profitable if managed appropriately."**

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further refining the model, and secondarily to test it in its present form, eight counselors who used it in their daily work settings for one semester reported no need for further change (Main 1974). These counselors worked with 92 parties to a conflict involving 37 conflict cases. There was no difference in effectiveness among the eight counselors using the model, and all eight gave it an overall rating of very effective (5 on a 5-point scale). The persons involved in the conflict, as well as the counselors, rated the model as helpful (4 on a 5-point scale). Based on their use of it, the counselors stated that the model was a viable tool they would use in the future. Although experimental evidence is sorely needed, we feel that the model has sufficient promise to recommend it as a method

worthy of examination by practicing counselors.

## THE MODEL

The model has five steps. With the aid of the counselor, the parties involved (a) describe the situation as they see it, (b) describe how they feel about the conflict and what personal meaning it has for them, (c) describe a desired situation to reduce the conflict, (d) determine what changes are necessary to achieve that situation, and (e) outline an agenda or plan of action to reach that situation. Before beginning this process with the parties who are in conflict, the counselor should emphasize and clarify the following goals and assumptions: first, that everyone wants to resolve the conflict in a mutually satisfactory manner; second, that the solution will not be a win-lose decision and that everyone will probably have to make some changes; third, that the counselor's function is to guide the people involved through a step-by-step process in order to achieve a reduction in the conflict, but not to make judgments as to who is right and who is wrong. Failure to clarify these points can result in misunderstanding and confusion.

### Step 1:

#### Description of the Situation

The purpose of this step is to determine the perception each person has of the situation. Everyone involved should describe, in cognitive terms, the present events or situations involved in the conflict. Emotions or feelings, which will be discussed in step 2, can confuse the issue at this point and should be avoided. It is also important to keep the focus on the present situation and not let past events creep into the description. Counselors who have used the model feel that this is difficult but important; although past events have probably contributed to the present situation, including them in the

description clouds the issue and is generally not helpful.

The purpose of this procedure is to achieve agreement on a description of the situation and to let each person involved see the others' perceptions of the situation. The counselor should stress that agreement at this point pertains only to a description of the situation. The counselor should have a firm idea of how each person perceives the situation and should make sure that everyone's perceptions are clearly understood by everyone else. Reflection and clarification responses can be very helpful at this point. To assure that everyone is understood, it is often helpful to have each person state the others' positions until each can state how all the others see the situation to the satisfaction of the others.

As the process moves through the following steps, it may be necessary to refer back to this step to keep everyone together. Writing down the details often saves time and confusion. Tape recording has also been used successfully at this point to keep a complete record of what has been said. The main point, however, is not to keep a record but to have agreement and understanding regarding the events involved in the conflict. Complete agreement is seldom achieved, of course, and generally it is necessary to proceed with only partial agreement. Determining at what point to proceed to step 2 is sometimes difficult, and occasionally it is necessary to return to step 1 for further clarification and understanding.

The illustration that follows is the reconstruction of an actual situation one of us worked with. The dialogue is abridged, but the general tone and content are authentic. Nancy was a student leader in an urban high school who demanded and got obedience from the other students. Miss Stillwell was a successful teacher who had met her match but who otherwise was highly regarded by students and faculty. After an appro-



priate introduction of the process, the dialogue began.

**Teacher:** Nancy comes in late, talks out loud during class, disrupts the class, and is rude and disobedient.

**Counselor:** As you see it, this is the source of the conflict.

**Teacher:** Yes.

**Counselor:** Can you describe what Nancy does when you say she is rude and disobedient?

This exchange continues until "rudeness" and "disobedience" are described behaviorally.

**Counselor:** Nancy, you have heard how Miss Stillwell sees what's happening. How do you see it?

**Nancy:** I agree with most of what she says, but I am not disobedient and rude like she says.

**Counselor:** Okay, can you describe it as you see it?

**Nancy:** Well, I do what she wants, but not always when she wants. And I tell her not to yell and to get off my back, but I don't think that is rude. She says worse things to me.

This continues until both teacher and student reach substantial agreement on what goes on.

## **Step 2:**

### **Description of Feelings and Meanings**

In this step the parties involved describe what the situation means to them, and they express their feelings regarding the conflict. Emotions and feelings that were not expressed in the first step should be

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**"The counselor's task is to help everyone achieve a clear perception of everyone else's feelings and of what the conflict means to all involved."**

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expressed at this point. The counselor's task is to help everyone achieve a clear perception of everyone else's feelings and of what the conflict means to all involved. It is sometimes difficult to get everyone to express real feelings; but on the other hand, uncontrolled outbursts can worsen the conflict. Again, reflection and clarification responses can be a help. Once feelings are thoroughly expressed, people tend to be ready to deal constructively with the issues.

In order to proceed to the next step, the persons involved should be aware of one another's needs as well as feelings. This will help when it is time to determine the changes necessary to reduce the conflict. If people do not have a clear perception of the others' feelings and needs, the changes demanded may perpetuate or acerbate the conflict.

**Counselor:** Nancy, we started by having Miss Stillwell describe the situation, so let's start this step by having you describe what it means to you and how you feel about the problem.

**Nancy:** Okay. Well, it's just one more problem with the principal, and it causes me problems with my people, and I don't like to be hassled all the time.

**Counselor:** Basically, you feel bad about it.

**Nancy:** Yeah, and I like Miss Stillwell, and I feel bad when she puts me down or I yell at her.

**Counselor:** Miss Stillwell, would you like to. . .

**Teacher:** I just feel terrible. Like I told you, I'm even thinking of quitting teaching, and every day I dread the period I have Nancy. Besides, I think I'm going to be fired because I don't have better order in class. [To Nancy] I didn't know you liked me.

At this point Nancy expressed surprise and concern that Miss Stillwell might lose her job. The dialogue continued until

each had a fairly clear idea of the other's feelings.

### **Step 3: Description of Desired Situation**

In this step the parties to the conflict describe a desired situation that would satisfactorily reduce the conflict as they perceive it. Movement into this step can usually be initiated by the counselor's asking each person to describe the situation he or she feels would be necessary to reduce the conflict. After each person has done this, the areas of agreement can be worked with to reduce the conflict. The counselor can help reduce difficulties by describing alternative situations. This step requires considerable agreement among everyone, and it is important to check for agreement frequently.

The ideal situation would be total agreement, but since this will seldom be the case, everyone should be aware of the areas of disagreement that still exist. The strategy is to increase areas in which there is agreement and to make the areas of disagreement such that they do not interfere with conflict reduction.

**Counselor:** Miss Stillwell, it is obvious that this problem is creating other problems for you. What would be the desired situation, from your standpoint?

**Teacher:** I don't know. It would be easy to say everything would be fine if Nancy behaved, but I can see her point. Also, I like Nancy, and I hope we can learn to get along. If Nancy just wouldn't disrupt the class and make me look bad, I would quit yelling at her and cutting her down.

**Nancy:** Well, if you treat me with respect and don't yell, I will not disrupt the class and make you look bad.

**Counselor:** On the surface it sounds like that would solve the problem. But I wonder, for example, if Miss Stillwell wants to correct you, how is she going to do it? Or how will Nancy let you, Miss Stillwell, know you are yelling?

Both acknowledged that they would still have problem days, and between them they worked out a signal system that each promised to respect. In addition, Nancy promised to use her influence as a gang leader to insure that Miss Stillwell would no longer have discipline problems in class.

This was an extreme case, but we have presented it to illustrate that the method can work with tough problems and tough students. This abbreviated version of the case may give the illusion of rapid, smooth progress, but the actual time required to get to this point in the reduction may extend into several sessions.

### **Step 4: Determination of Necessary Changes**

The changes that will have to take place in order to reach the situation described in step 3 are usually obvious, but occasionally the counselor may have to provide considerable help. At this time it may be necessary to restate that this is not a win-lose contest. Some persons adopt the attitude that the others should do all the changing necessary to reduce the conflict. If this happens, the counselor should intervene and help work for a just and practical solution. In order to avoid confusion, each person should list the changes he or she will make in order to reduce the conflict. This helps prevent misunderstanding.

Because of space limitation, we do not present the dialogue format for steps 4 and 5. What Miss Stillwell and Nancy needed to do was worked out in detail. After they agreed on what each was willing to do, they agreed on an agenda. Follow-up meetings between the two were set so that they could check on how well the changes were working.

### **Step 5: Outline of the Agenda**

This step requires the parties' commitment to implement a plan of action based on the statements they made in the pre-

vious steps. It is of little value to arrive at the agreements and desired situation unless an agenda is set up to help move toward a reduction of the conflict by action. An agenda emphasizes a definite plan and lessens confusion in carrying out the reduction.

The agenda is generally a natural development from step 4, when each person stated the changes he or she was willing to make. Occasionally, however, people balk at making a real commitment to do something. Summarizing and reviewing the preceding steps often helps to arrive at an agenda that is mutually satisfactory. In very difficult cases it may even be necessary to repeat substantial portions of preceding steps before sincere commitments can be obtained. It is very important not to force commitments or terminate the process until all are satisfied that they have arrived at a satisfactory plan and sincerely agree to do their parts. The counselor should make follow-up checks in order to see that all parties hold to their commitments and in order to make adjustments if appropriate. In many instances there will be natural spots for these checks to take place; in other cases it is necessary to judge the appropriate time to make the checks.

## CONCLUSION

The consensus model is presented not as a panacea for dealing with conflict but as a systematic way of reducing interpersonal conflict. A counselor may find it helpful in numerous ways, but the model's greatest value probably lies in the guidelines it provides for dealing con-

structively with conflict. Using the model, a counselor can work actively for solutions to conflict without taking an authoritarian role or taking sides in a controversy. In many cases students have learned the model and then used it without help. Currently administrators are learning the model and successfully using it with staff as well as with students. We are very enthusiastic about the use of this model and hope that readers will find it helpful. ■

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## Rekindling

Helpers give, and give, and give.  
Warmth, skill, and luck combine  
to soothe, guide, explain, and encourage  
someone else to grow.  
The people helped say "Thank you"  
and quickly leave to forget  
all the pain that was shared,  
and left behind, with us.

With our resources invested in others' struggles  
we often overlook our own enrichment, satisfaction.  
Our candles dim and lose their glow.  
Our smiles become tiresome  
attempting to forget feelings overlooked below  
'til the pains, agonies of selflessness well up  
and bursts of raw tears and painful wails flood out.

Shaken, empty, trembling, relieved,  
we begin to remember our need for love,  
to be needed, to be chosen,  
also our need to rekindle our love of self.  
Help, and love, yourself first and last  
and many people in between.

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# activity group guidance: a developmental approach

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*Activity Group Guidance can be a useful tool for counselors who wish to include developmental guidance in their repertoire.*

*The authors illustrate the content, process, and group dynamics of Activity Group Guidance, and they describe and evaluate a comprehensive Activity Group Guidance program. Finally, the authors give specific suggestions to counselors who wish to start Activity Groups.*

In many settings students who do not have serious problems are largely ignored by their counselors, even though these students do have very real guidance needs. They can profit by learning how to make decisions, accept responsibility, get along with others, and apply a hundred other guidance principles that will help them become adequate adults. One of the most important functions of the counselor is to serve as a guidance specialist who provides a comprehensive developmental guidance program rather than as a therapist who facilitates a cure for an illness. This developmental guidance specialist provides guidance information and teaches skills for processing that information. Activity Group

Guidance can be a useful tool for counselors who have this developmental orientation.

## WHAT IS ACTIVITY GROUP GUIDANCE?

Activity Group Guidance (AGG) is an adaptation of play therapy techniques, which have been used successfully in clinical settings (Axline 1947; Ginott 1961; Moustakas 1955). Activity Group therapists have emphasized that work with children is most effective when it takes place in a natural setting that provides an opportunity for behavior change (Blakeman & Day 1969). Alexander (1964), Blakeman (1967), Day (1967), and Komechak (1971) have effectively applied the Activity Group concept to counseling in schools, but again each focused on children with serious problems.

AGG is a developmental group process suitable for almost all students. Group participants experience and discuss one or more guidance principles through the planning and completing of some task or project. One purpose of the group is for the leader and group members to work together in order to com-

plete the task-oriented activity. A second purpose is to use the group process and the experiences that are involved in completing the project to learn a guidance principle.

AGG combines some aspects of group counseling (Blakeman & Day 1969) with the sound teaching strategy of learning through experience (Carswell & Roubinek 1974; Holt 1972; Silberman 1973). Ideally, guidance becomes an important part of every curricular area. In practice, this does not usually happen unless a program such as AGG is set up to provide a means for consciously integrating guidance content into the existing curriculums. AGG provides an opportunity for the counselor and the teacher to develop confluent education, which integrates the affective, cognitive, and psychomotor aspects of learning into a unified whole (Brown 1971). Confluent education is achieved with Activity Groups in which students may learn affective guidance principles through a cognitive curriculum experienced in an action setting.

## THE CONTENT

The content of AGG is limited only by the imagination of the leader and the interests of the group. Task-oriented projects can be developed around anything that the leader and group find interesting, but the most common activities include projects in arts and crafts, creative drama, creative writing, home economics, physical education, and science. The guidance content of Activity Groups may include any guidance principle that the leader and the group wish to develop.

Activity Groups may be part of a special guidance curriculum developed cooperatively by teachers and the counselor. For example, a unit on understanding feelings might include an AGG session in which participants make a collage with faces that express emotions. A

unit on encouragement could involve the planning and staging of a play, giving the group an opportunity to learn and use the encouragement process.

Activity Groups may be used as part of a unit of study in the existing curriculum of any subject. In a math class, for example, an activity designed to develop word problems that have an affective as well as a cognitive solution can become a foundation for discussion of the guidance concept of problem solving. In a physical education class a series of lessons may involve the student in developing, teaching, and learning new games; this can provide an excellent opportunity to explore guidance principles such as sharing, decision making, leadership, and cooperation.

Some schools have set aside a block of time each week for interest groups or clubs, and these groups can easily be developed into Activity Groups if the leaders are trained to implement the guidance aspect of the program. An interest group for training student crosswalk guards may become a vehicle for the discussion of mutual respect and responsibility, and a choral group may provide an excellent setting for developing the guidance principles of working together and accepting self and others.

## THE PROCESS

There are usually three stages in the process of implementing AGG sessions: a warm-up discussion, the activity itself, and a follow-up discussion. If time is limited and flexibility is desired, one or more of these stages may be omitted during some sessions.

### Stage 1: Warm-Up Discussion

During the warm-up discussion, the leader begins a dialogue with the group about the basic guidance principle to be emphasized in the session; this short discussion sets the tone for the activity that will follow. If encouragement is the focus



for a given session, the group members may become more aware of how their behavior can be encouraging or discouraging to others and better recognize when someone is trying to encourage them.

Also during this stage, the group and the leader agree on the specific objectives they wish to accomplish during the session. These goals involve completion of

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**"A unit on understanding feelings might include a session in which participants make a collage with faces that express emotions."**

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the task-oriented activity and implementation of the guidance principles to be stressed. The group and the leader develop the specific steps needed to accomplish their stated objectives; the leader usually needs to give clear directions for completing the activity and may model the necessary skills. The emphasis in Activity Groups is on spontaneity and flexibility, but the limits of behavior that are acceptable to the group need to be clearly defined.

### **Stage 2: The Activity**

After the warm-up discussion, the necessary materials are made available and the group members work together to complete their project. In this stage the group members spend most of their time in an activity; rather than abstractly talking about a guidance principle such as decision making, they experience making decisions and accepting the positive or negative consequences of their decisions as they engage in an enjoyable activity in a natural setting. Instead of talking about how to develop self-confidence, they experience an increase in confidence as they develop new skills and re-

ceive encouragement from the leader and from others in the group.

The specific structure of the "doing" stage will vary according to the makeup of the group, the objectives of the leader, the leader's skills, and the nature of the activity. Frequently the whole group works together on a common task, but some or all of the participants may work independently on a project if this is appropriate to the situation.

The leader works with the group as an active participant who is an appropriate model for the group and as an adult friend who builds encouraging relationships with the students. The leader observes the behavior and interactions of group members, and his or her observations may provide some of the content for the follow-up discussion. The leader also may give feedback to some of the participants concerning the guidance principle being stressed. As incidents occur that can provide an opportunity for learning guidance principles, part or all of the group may talk about it while working on the group project. If a major crisis develops, the group may stop work on their projects and work together to resolve it. The primary objective during this stage, however, is informal interaction rather than formal discussion.

### **Stage 3: Follow-Up Discussion**

The follow-up discussion is a key part of AGG. During this dialogue, the group and the leader discuss the activity they have just completed and the guidance principle involved. Emphasis is placed on the thoughts, feelings, and actions of the participants. The group evaluates the extent to which their stated goals and objectives were reached. When necessary, plans are made to modify subsequent sessions in order to better accomplish the goals. During the discussion, group members may be helped to understand the purpose of their own behavior and may learn skills for helping

each other improve their behavior and attitudes.

## GROUP DYNAMICS

Within an Activity Group there are a number of dynamics that may influence the success of the experience.

First, the atmosphere must be democratic rather than authoritarian or permissive (Dreikurs, Grunwald & Pepper 1971; White & Lippitt 1960); this implies an atmosphere of mutual respect in which people have freedom with responsibility. Group members are given choices within limits that they may help to develop, and they are allowed to experience the consequences of the choices they have made. It is extremely important that each group find its own comfort level in the delicate balance between spontaneity and structure. Ideally, groups are as open, free, and flexible as possible but structured enough for accomplishment of the group goals. Variables such as the maturity of group members, content of the activity, size and location of the meeting place, and personality of the leader will affect the appropriate balance. Second, group cohesiveness is most likely to develop when the tone of the group is based on an attitude of mutual help and encouragement. If the group is to be cohesive, it is extremely important that the members and the leader have a common purpose or objective for each session and agree on the limits to be followed. Third, the group leader must neither operate as the "boss" of the group nor abdicate responsibility by acting only as an observer. The leader needs to be very much involved in the activity, serving as a facilitator and a model who helps the group members solve their difficulties. The leader must carefully plan each session and be prepared for almost anything that might occur.

Choice of leaders for Activity Groups may be flexible. AGG programs have

been successfully led by counselors, teachers, and trained lay or paraprofessional leaders, including college students and parents (Hillman & Bowlus 1971). The groups may vary in size according to the leader's objective and the activity involved. Groups of 8 to 10 members work very well in most situations, but they may be smaller or larger to meet specific

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**"A number of dynamics may influence the success of the experience. First, the atmosphere must be democratic rather than authoritarian or permissive."**

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needs. A typical classroom group may be divided into three or four Activity Groups, but AGG for the whole class is also a very effective procedure. It is usually best to organize groups so that there is a mix of sexes and personalities. Variety in the composition of the group stimulates more productive interaction and personal growth.

## AN EXAMPLE

This series of four drama AGG sessions was developed by a junior high school counselor for use in classroom-sized groups as part of an ongoing classroom group guidance program and has been used in grades five through eight. With some modification, however, it would be suitable for students in kindergarten through high school. The activity content and the guidance principles used in the first three sessions are outlined below, and a more detailed presentation of session four is provided.

### SESSION 1

*Activity Content:* Choosing groups to write plays. The class is divided into three or four groups.



*Guidance Principle:* Understanding individual differences.

#### SESSION 2

*Activity Content:* Defining criteria for the content of the plays.

*Guidance Principle:* Making decisions.

#### SESSION 3

*Activity Content:* Writing the plays.

*Guidance Principle:* Contributing individual skills to the group.

#### SESSION 4

*Activity Content:* Staging the plays.

*Guidance Principle:* Cooperating and working together.

Following is a description of the three stages as they are implemented in the fourth session.

*Stage 1: Warm-Up Discussion.* In this discussion the leader gives necessary directions and makes sure that they are understood. The class and the leader decide whether their goal for the session will be for each group to stage its own play or for each group to stage a play written by another group; cooperation is best taught through the latter method. The group members discuss the concept of cooperation as people work together, and they develop specific plans for cooperating to stage the play. Who will play which roles? Who will find props? Who will prepare costumes? Making each of these decisions requires that the group work together.

*Stage 2: The Activity.* Students divide into groups and, within the time available, practice and stage a play. The leader should be aware of the many different examples of cooperation and noncooperation taking place among individuals in the groups, since this information can be used in the follow-up stage. Time may not be available during session four to do more than practice. If this is the case, and it often is with older students, a separate

session may be planned for the staging of each play.

*Stage 3: Follow-Up Discussion.* The follow-up stage involves a discussion of the drama activity and the guidance principles of cooperating and working together. Students talk about what they have done that illustrates these principles. Also during this stage, the group members evaluate how well they have accomplished their goals and objectives.

#### A COMPREHENSIVE AGG PROGRAM IN ACTION

We have been involved in the implementation of Activity Group Guidance in many elementary and secondary schools. The most extensive of these programs was part of an ESEA Title III project directed by the senior author (Hillman & Bowlus 1971). All children in grades two through six in three small schools were in about 25 groups. Typically, each classroom was divided into three or four Activity Groups of about seven or eight boys and girls. Each group had two leaders (one male and one female) who were university graduate students majoring in counseling, psychology, or education. The groups met for 45 to 60 minutes each week throughout the school year. The general objective of each group was to create a relaxed atmosphere in which the children could develop the skills necessary for good interpersonal relationships with like and opposite sex peers, parents, teachers, and other adults. The groups were usually involved in arts and crafts, cooking, and drama.

An evaluation was conducted to assess the effectiveness of the AGG program, the leaders having been carefully trained to observe and record critical behavior exhibited by the children in their groups. These observations were then used to make ratings on six dimensions of social behavior: participation in group activity, self-assertiveness with peers, respect for others, valuation by peers, interaction



with adult leaders, and emotional expression. Initial ratings were made in the fall, and final ratings were made in May after an average of 23 sessions. As rated by the adult leaders, the children at all grade levels (2 through 6) made substantial gains in the quality of their behavior. Here are typical examples:

- Activity Groups interested in science often took walks to nearby beaches to observe plant and animal life in the tide pools, and at first the children tried to destroy or remove some of the wildlife. After discussions about respect for living things and the rights of future visitors, the children became avid protectors of the tide pools.

- In an arts and crafts group there was initial antagonism between the boys and the girls. The male and female leaders modeled appropriate respect and cooperation as they worked together with the children, and they facilitated discussion about getting along with others. Sexually loaded animosities all but disappeared. One little girl who seemed very much afraid of men was able to develop a positive relationship with her male Activity Group leader and later was able to relate positively to other men on the staff. Several boys who did not have a father in the home became more masculine in their behavior.

- A drama Activity Group was a vehicle for helping many extremely shy and withdrawn children to be more spontaneous and to express their emotions more easily.

- Dramatic changes took place in the level of responsibility and mutual respect among children in a cooking Activity Group. They became much neater, more serious about cleaning up, and less inclined to make discouraging comments to one another. Teachers reported positive transfer of these behaviors to the classroom situation.

In a second evaluation procedure, all

children participating in the AGG program were asked in May to complete an open-ended questionnaire concerning their reaction to the groups. The children were very enthusiastic. The things they most commonly mentioned as liking the best were: specific activities; "learning to do new things"; and the kindness, thoughtfulness, and understanding of the leaders. They said they liked the boys and girls in the group because "we are friends," "we don't fight," and "we have fun together." They liked their leaders because "they are nice," "they are good to us," "they like us," "we do things together that are fun," "they don't yell at us," "they are fun to be with," and "they let us do things we like." The children did not have many suggestions for changes in the groups, but some said they did not like the groups to be too chaotic, and a few did not like it "when we all go into one room and talk." Others indicated that they would like to meet more often. All the respondents said they wanted to continue in the program the following year.

Early in the program many teachers did not understand the purpose and rationale of Activity Groups, despite persistent efforts to inform them. Perhaps the atmosphere of genuine warmth, acceptance, and democracy was somewhat threatening to traditional teachers. A valuable by-product of the program was that the group leaders were positive models for many of the teachers, who became much less rigid, discouraged children much less, and began to be more tolerant, open, and relaxed in their teaching.

Parents of the children in the program were asked to complete the Wichita Check List for Parents in the fall and again in the spring. The results indicated that the children had fewer adjustment problems in the spring than in the fall. Children who had had the largest number of problems initially appeared to have changed the most.

Obviously, much more sophisticated evaluation procedures are needed before definite conclusions can be made about the effectiveness of AGG, but this evaluation does indicate that the program was a success in the opinion of the children and adults involved.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

Counselors who wish to emphasize their roles as developmental guidance specialists should find Activity Group Guidance a valuable tool. To initiate such a program the counselor will have several responsibilities. First, the counselor will need to serve as a leader for several Activity Groups in order to learn the process and feel comfortable with it. When leading a group, the counselor will be a model for others who may lead groups in the future. Second, the counselor will need to recruit and provide training for group leaders—teachers, parents, college students, paraprofessionals, or older students. Part of this training would include counselor demonstrations of AGG. Third, the counselor will be a resource of activity ideas, materials, and guidance principles for lay leaders. Finally, the counselor's main responsibility will be to organize and coordinate the AGG program.

AGG provides an excellent way to identify students who need the special attention that individual or group counseling provides. Many times parent or teacher consultation will be an outgrowth of an Activity Group, and methods that have been successful with children may be shared with the teacher or parent. We have found AGG a worthwhile procedure that can put new vitality into an elementary or secondary school counseling program. We hope other counselors will try some of the ideas presented here. ■

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# righting the wrongs of writing: copy editors speak out

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*The major part of APGA Press production editors' jobs is copy editing manuscripts before they are set in type. In this article, written at the invitation of the P&G editor, two APGA Press Staff members use specific examples to illustrate the grammatical and stylistic errors that cause problems for them and, if not corrected, for readers. The authors hope that contributors and potential contributors to professional journals will find this article helpful in expressing their ideas clearly when preparing material for publication.*

It's a typical day in the Press Staff offices. The managing editor's phone rings.

"APGA Press."

"Jackie? It's Jude. I can't figure out this sentence."

"Okay, read it to me."

"It says, 'It has been thusly observed that students in contiguous areas of growth at various levels, no matter where they are, come to the counselor for help with the presumptuousness of effectiveness of facilitation.'"

"What???"

"Well, I have no idea what these authors are talking about."

"What's the article about?"

"It's about the characteristics of undergraduate students who seek counseling."

"All right, let's take it one step at a time. What does the pronoun *they* refer to? Students? Areas? Levels?"

TEN MINUTES LATER:

"Okay, read it back to me. What have we got?"

"Here it is: 'We have seen that students at all levels of growth come to the counselor for help and expect to receive it.'"

Conversations of this kind take place often around the APGA Press. In this case we were able to figure out what the authors wanted to say and help them say it clearly. We can't always. Sometimes a sentence is so awkward that we don't know what the author is trying to say, and chances are that the reader won't



either. We thought it might be helpful to share with P&G readers and potential contributors some of the misuses and poor uses of language we have come across in articles we have edited. By being aware of some of the common writing faults that can lead to misinterpretation, an author can avoid them.

### WHY COPY EDITORS?

Copy editors, those mysterious, behind-the-scenes people on the staffs of every book publishing company, magazine, journal, and newspaper, have a major job: to help writers communicate their ideas to readers as clearly and effectively as possible. Essentially this process entails improving readability by correcting grammatical errors and making stylistic changes. Depending on the literary medium they are working in, copy editors' tasks vary. Although our experience has been primarily in journal work, and our examples are drawn from this medium, what we have to say is applicable to all types of writing.

A professional journal article is expository in nature. The author's purpose is to present a point of view, an idea, a finding, or a program to a readership of professional colleagues. In other words, the article is designed to inform. To communicate. To talk to people. When the writing technique or style interferes with or detracts from the ideas, the purpose is defeated.

This is where we come in. On the following pages are some examples of the kinds of changes we make in manuscripts to clarify meaning and improve readability.

### RIGHTING THE WRONGS OF WRITING

There are two types of problems that give copy editors headaches. One is that of grammar and syntax—a misplaced comma, an incorrectly used conjunction, a pronoun with an unclear referent. The

other, harder to define, concerns style and readability. We'll take the second one first.

### Style and Readability

Some years ago, a newscaster reported on a national news station, "He shot his girlfriend in the Bronx." If you've ever been shot in the Bronx, you know how painful that can be.

Okay. Everybody knew what he meant; the point is that it sounded a little silly. Style is not what you say but how you say it. Remember, the purpose of professional journal material is to communicate. Anything—a paragraph, a sentence, a phrase, or even a word—that doesn't work smoothly to that end doesn't belong there. There are several ways that style can interfere with communication.

*Short and Sweet Says It Best.* Writing principle number one, and also principles number two, three, and four, is *economy of expression*. No matter what the medium, the straightforward, declarative sentence is the most direct way of communicating. You can't beat it. Unnecessarily long and involved sentences only confuse readers. Such sentences crop up when an author tries to cram too many ideas into one sentence. When a sentence has too many clauses, too many "whiches," the reader tends to try to sort out the sentence instead of paying attention to what the author is saying. Sentences needn't be choppy, but they shouldn't be so complicated that the reader must read them two or three times to understand the meaning.

The following is a good example. "The client who has been referred within himself or herself predetermines and verbalizes to the counselor to whom he or she has been referred about what his or her counterproductive behaviors are or are not, makes decisions regarding which of such behaviors she or he can commit himself or herself to work on, with the counselor, of course, and the

counselor facilitates the setting of aforementioned goals related to the replacement of such with more positive behavioral performances, or goals related to the acquisition of such which had not previously been within the viable parameters of the client's activity-oriented repertoire." Whew. Authors may know what they mean when they write sentences such as that one, but, being more involved with their ideas than with their words, they don't express the meaning succinctly and clearly.

Where language and diction (word choice) are concerned, economy of ex-

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pression is again the key. Unusual word usages are detrimental to communication when they draw attention to themselves and away from the writer's ideas. When a short, simple, common word will do, use it in place of a long, unusual one. Why send readers scurrying to their dictionaries to look up *perdure* and *extirpate* when *last* and *destroy* will convey the meaning? The impression this gives is that the author is trying to impress readers with an extensive vocabulary. They may indeed be impressed. They may also miss the author's meaning. Using simple words is not necessarily patronizing. Rather, it makes for clear, precise, direct communication.

Another diction fault may have the opposite effect: It may put readers to sleep. We're talking about the tendency to repeat the same word or phrase over and over again. Using interesting synonyms makes uninteresting writing more interesting for interested readers.

Oops. What we meant to say was that the use of interesting synonyms makes dull writing come alive for attentive readers.

*Writing in Action, or, Action in Writing.* A problem on the more technical side is the use of the passive voice. Here's a quick grammar lesson, before you go hunting for your fifteen-year-old's grammar text in order to get through this paragraph. *I taught the class* has an active verb. *The class was taught by me* has a passive verb. Both sentences are grammatically correct, and in both the meaning is clear. The difference is in the emphasis. In the second case the grammatical subject of the sentence is not the person who is doing the acting (*me*) but the thing that is being acted on (*the class*).

We've seen many articles full of good ideas that might have been interesting but weren't because sentence after sentence had passive verbs. This kind of writing is boring and dry because it is literally passive; there is no action taking place, no movement to keep the reader interested. Unfortunately, this is the least of the difficulties. Often a sentence written in the passive voice is at best ridiculous, at worst incomprehensible. One author wrote, *Courses are taught by the counselors in mental institutions*. The copy editor changed it to read *The counselors teach courses to patients who are in mental institutions*, lest young counselor trainees get the wrong impression about what will happen to them after they get out of school. *Counselors and students plan a curriculum together, and a student portfolio is maintained*. Obviously, it is not clear who is keeping the portfolio. Are counselors keeping tabs on the students? Are students recording their own progress? Or is a third party keeping this log? This is a case in which the active voice is imperative for clarification.

In other words, don't say *it can be seen that*; say *we can see that*. Don't say *it is hoped by this author that*; say *I hope that*. Don't say *it has been shown by researchers that*; say *researchers have shown that*. In your read-



ing, watch for passive construction and see how it detracts from the impact of a sentence. Watch for it also in your writing, and change it!

*The Medium, the Message, the Method.* A more general style issue authors should be concerned with is the appropriateness of language. Metaphors, analogies, images, and poetic phrases are often inappropriate in expository writing because they are distracting. As with unusual word usages, these figures of speech draw attention to themselves. We have come across sentences such as these in journal manuscripts: *In order to relate to clients, the counselor must empathically wear his heart on his sleeve. Sounds pretty messy. The book provided a veritable treasure chest of pearls of wisdom for those who read it. A real gem. Driving down the narrow and winding highway of life, we counselors have a panoramic view of the lonely, alienated counselee-hitchhikers who beckon to us to stop and help them. Will we heed the call of their supplicating thumbs?* Good grief.

Imagery and poetic language work only when they are fresh, interesting, and to the point. Words and phrases that are trite don't work in any context. Only the most skillful writers can combine expository and creative writing without causing a jarring effect on the reader.

We can't leave this topic without saying a word about professional jargon. In many cases counseling terminology has specific meaning, and people in the field understand it. But many times a word or phrase is overblown; the writer could substitute a simple word or phrase without sacrificing the meaning. In speaking of jargon, Edwin Newman, in *Strictly Speaking: Will America Be the Death of English?*, says, "A large part of social scientific practice consists of taking clear ideas and making them opaque" (1974, p. 146). He goes on to say,

For a social scientist to make obscure what he considers to be unnecessarily clear calls not so much for an imagination as for an appropriate vocabulary in

which boundaries are parameters, parts are components, things are not equal but co-equal, [and] signs are indicators. . . . To know oneself is to have self-awareness, communities being studied are target areas, thinking is conceptualization, patterns are configurations, and people do not speak but articulate or verbalize; nor are they injured: they are traumatized. . . .

You can move on quickly to more complex constructions. "Siblings are conflicted in their interpersonal relationships" means that children of the same parent or parents don't like each other. "Exogenous variables form the causal linkage that explains the poverty impact, the behavior modification, and the intergroup dissonance in the target area" means that outside factors cause the poverty and the changes in people that lead to trouble in the neighborhood. A recommendation by a medical ethicist that a physician obtain an input from the patient's own value system means that the patient should be asked whether he wants the treatment. (pp. 146-147)

We don't mean to discourage the use of professional terminology when it is called for; we only urge that your writing be clear, simple, and direct. The use of jargon may muddy your message.

### Grammar and Syntax

The mighty comma! This little piece of punctuation has the power to change the entire meaning of a sentence. *The counselor trainee the supervisors observed was having difficulty in applying behavior modification techniques* means that the supervisors observed a particular trainee who was having this difficulty. *The counselor trainee, the supervisors observed, was having difficulty in applying behavior modification techniques.* The commas give a completely different connotation to the word *observed*. Without the commas, *observed* is being used in the sense of "saw" or

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**" 'Wives had a greater desire to talk to a counselor than their husbands,' said one author, making it easy to see why the wives needed counseling."**

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"watched"; with the commas, it means "made an observation" or "said."

Here's a case in which the meaning is clear, but only after a second reading of the sentence. *The group counseling sessions are cancelled today and tomorrow classes will start late.* These are two independent clauses separated by a conjunction; this construction almost always requires a comma. Without a comma after *today*, the reader tends to link *today* and *tomorrow* before realizing the writer's intent. But be careful; what appear to be independent clauses may not be. *The group counseling sessions are cancelled today, and tomorrow will resume as usual.* We're all relieved to hear that, but the writer intended no such assurance. Two independent clauses have two subjects and two verbs. This sentence has one subject (*sessions*) and a compound verb (*are cancelled* and *will resume*); *tomorrow* is an adverb. The best way to rewrite the latter sentence is *The group counseling sessions are cancelled today and will resume tomorrow as usual.*

Pronouns without clear antecedents are inevitably confusing. *The teachers put the children's drawings on the walls, and the parents praised them for their originality.* It's not clear what the pronouns *them* and *their* refer to. The situation calls for either a repetition of the noun being referred to or a recasting of the sentence. The second clause should be either *the parents praised the children's originality* or *the parents praised the originality of the drawings* or *the parents praised the teachers for the originality of their idea.* We assume that the walls were secure enough not to crumble for lack of parental praise.

Syntax refers to the order and relation of the elements of a sentence. *Dr. Finch was among the department heads at the meeting.* If Dr. Finch is one of the department heads, the sentence would be better written *Dr. Finch was one of the department heads at the meeting.* If Dr. Finch was standing amidst a group of department heads, that should be made clear: *Dr. Finch was standing among the department heads at the*

*meeting.* Another example of a syntactical problem: *The concept of psychological education in the university has changed drastically* must be changed to read either *In the university, the concept of psychological education has changed drastically* or *Psychological education in the university is a concept that has changed drastically.* A third example: *Wives had a greater desire to talk to a counselor than their husbands,* said one author, making it easy to see why the wives needed counseling in the first place. What the author meant was: *Wives, more than their husbands, wanted to talk to a counselor.* Another alternative: *Wives had a greater desire to talk to a counselor than did their husbands.*

*The program included lectures on the rationale for career development and role playing.* There are three possible meanings here, and the syntax of the sentence should leave no doubt as to which is correct. *The program included lectures on the rationale for career development and the rationale for role playing.* Or, *The program included role-playing exercises and lectures on the rationale for career development.* Or, *The program included lectures on role playing and on the rationale for career development.* The difficulty in the original sentence arises from the fact that the reader can't tell whether the noun *role playing* is the object of the preposition *on*, the object of the preposition *for*, or the direct object of the verb *included*.

The placement of adjectives can be critical. In the phrase *new students, faculty, and staff*, it isn't clear whether *new* refers to all three groups or to students only. If the writer means to refer to all three groups, the phrase can read either *new students, new faculty, and new staff* or *students, faculty, and staff, all of whom were new.* If *new* refers to students alone, it can read *new students, the faculty, and the staff* or, even better, *faculty, staff, and new students.*

Our intention here was not to write a grammar and style book but to focus on

some common faults that hamper readability. Be aware of these faults. Look for others as well. Be a critical reviewer of your own writing; question every word, every phrase, every sentence. But don't stop there. Since you, as an author, may be too close to your own writing to be able to look at it objectively and assess its quality, have someone else read and critique it. That someone should be a person outside your professional field, a person who can provide an honest and objective appraisal of your writing. An English instructor, a writer, or an editor would be ideal. And there are plenty of good books on style and usage, some scholarly, some entertaining, all informative and helpful. You'll find our favorites listed in the bibliography.

## A FINAL WORD

Writing quality may be the deciding factor in a journal editor's accepting or rejecting a manuscript. In some cases a manuscript is of borderline acceptability in terms of content and originality, and if the writing is poor, that may be the factor that consigns it to the rejection pile. In other instances a manuscript is quite good with regard to content and originality but is so poorly written that an editor rejects it for that reason alone. A practitioner may indeed have a practical and workable technique, a truly innovative program, or a fresh insight into an accepted theory, but an editor may never discover it. It is unlikely that an editor who has to wade through context to get to content will be favorably disposed toward the material.

We have two suggestions. The first

we've mentioned or implied as often as we could in this article: *Economize in expression*. In writing, there is no substitute for simplicity. The second suggestion, closely related to the first, is this: *Write the way you talk*. People don't usually talk in five-syllable words and multiclausal sentences; and readers are, after all, seeing the written words of someone who is talking to them. Here's how to check it out: If you would feel uncomfortable saying aloud something you have written, your writing is probably stilted and unnatural. Say to yourself what you would say to another person, and then write it that way. You can do the polishing later.

And so, as we wend our wandering way toward that big editorial office in the sky, we fight with never-ending zeal to extirpate obfuscation and illuminatively elucidate the methodological method for ameliorating the causative determinants of linguistic malfeasance. . . . ■

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# *In the Field*

*Reports of programs, practices, or techniques*

## Paying Students to Learn

BERNADENE V. ALLEN

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Nearly a decade ago, before behavior modification was being frequently applied to classroom behavior, a behavior modification study was conducted at Stanford University in California; the results of that study can now be viewed from a nine-year perspective. The purpose of the study was to modify the school behavior of students by improving their study habits, their attitudes toward school, and their grades, with the goal that students with very poor academic records would become successful college students. The students who were selected had less than a C average and, according to school records and teachers, did not have college potential. The students were black and Chicano, came from economically poor families, and attended high schools that had a predominantly minority student population.

Seven students who were entering the 10th or 11th grade and three students who had recently finished high school were included in the study. Of the high school students, three were Chicano males, one was a Chicana (female Chicano), and three were black males. The three students who had completed high school were black males.

The study was conducted during the 1965-66 academic year, at a time when there were virtually no programs to encourage black and Chicano youth to seek a higher education. Many of the educational vehicles now available to minority students were not in existence (Egerton 1969; Kitano & Miller 1970). The behavior modification model of counseling that was selected was based on the assumption that students would alter non-productive behavior if they were offered a sufficiently attractive reward: money.



## THE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

An initial meeting held with each high school student focused on schoolwork and school performance. The counselor suggested that the student's academic performance could be improved and that going to college was a real possibility. The counselor then asked each student to name his or her most valued reward; five of the seven replied that money was an attractive reward, one chose scientific books and equipment, and one replied that football was his primary enjoyment.

Students who valued money were offered the opportunity to earn \$5 a month for each A or B grade in each course, excluding physical education. An A or B grade in five courses would therefore be worth \$25 a month, a goodly sum for high school students, especially at that time. Each month the students' teachers received a form requesting a record of the grade the student had earned during the month, the overall semester grade to date, and the areas in which the student needed improvement. Each month the counselor met with every student to give the student the earned reward and to discuss the teachers' reports. The students thus obtained a monthly monetary reward for school achievement as well as direct feedback about their academic performance.

The student who chose scientific books and equipment as a reward was treated in much the same manner, except that each month the counselor accompanied him to a store to select scientific books or equipment, the number and cost of which were determined by the grades he earned that month.

For the student who found football rewarding, a more complex program was devised. An arrangement was made with the athletic director at Stanford University by which the student could work on the ballfield as the timekeeper during Stanford football games. Because football games were played weekly, the

student was on a weekly reinforcement schedule. The criterion of academic accomplishment was the completion of homework each week, because for this student there was a direct correlation between completion of homework and proficiency in subject matter. Teachers provided weekly reports on his homework, and he was rewarded accordingly; each week that he completed the homework he was the timekeeper at the Saturday football game.

This unique reward system for the student who liked football was extremely effective; the student diligently completed his homework and rapidly raised his grades from D's to B's and A's. Unfortunately, however, the system had a built-in weakness: Its effectiveness lasted only until the end of the football season. After the final game of the season, the student again began to neglect his homework. His grades fell, and he quickly approached his previous low level of academic performance. Fortunately for his schoolwork and the success of the experiment, he soon became interested in girls and needed money for dates. Money was then substituted as the reward, whereupon he once again began doing his homework, and his grades improved. Also, with money as the reward, it was possible to put him on a monthly reward schedule consistent with that of the other high school students.

## THE COLLEGE STUDENTS

The three students who had completed high school faced the more difficult task of entering college. They were deficient in educational skills and study habits and had few ethnic models to follow or to seek out for advice.

These students were introduced to the program by being offered a job that required them to attend the local community college. The job paid a dollar an hour to attend class, plus a bonus at the end of each month for all courses in

which they maintained at least a C average. A grade of C was worth a bonus of \$3 per course unit, a B worth \$4 per course unit, an A worth \$5 per course unit. The total earnings of the students each month were approximately \$50 for attending classes, plus a bonus that usually ranged from \$10 to \$25. Like the high school students, the college students were on a monthly reinforcement schedule. Jean Wirth, a teacher at the community college, volunteered to be academic advisor to the students, thus providing a readily available on-campus advisor. (This teacher continued her involvement with educationally disadvantaged students by founding a much larger program that is similar in some respects to this study. The program is described in Lopate [1969]).

### ACTIVITIES OF THE COUNSELOR

The counselor played an active role in this project. Before giving a student the money each month, the counselor carefully went over the teachers' reports with each student, making sure that the student clearly understood the evaluation. This procedure led to the early realization that, in general, the students had little understanding of how grades were computed. Typically the students believed that if they had five D's or F's and one B in any given course, their grade in that class was a B. Learning how grades were averaged or weighted provided them with a realistic appraisal of their work as well as with the skill to compute their own grades for continual feedback.

When students complained about not understanding an assignment, or when they complained about what they perceived as an unfair grade, they were encouraged to ask the teacher for clarification. The counselor made no attempt to offer interpretations or suggestions about any complaint that clearly needed clarification from a teacher. Students were compelled to seek help, advice, and

clarification from teachers and thus learned that teachers are helpful. Later, when the students described approaching teachers for help, the counselor praised the students with such words as "good," "fine," and the like.

During each meeting, the student was asked detailed questions about the completion of homework assignments so that both student and counselor had a thorough understanding of how frequently homework assignments were completed. Completed homework was rewarded with verbal praise. As the months passed, more and more homework was completed, until homework became a routine evening occurrence. Also, the students were encouraged to participate in class discussions; the counselor suggested that they begin by asking simple questions and progress to volunteering more difficult answers. Verbal praise was given for descriptions of class participation. Unspecific, general complaining was ignored by the counselor. Soon students engaged less in generalized complaining and focused more on areas in which they could alter specific behavior.

### ONE YEAR LATER

At the end of one academic year, every one of the high school students had altered his or her grades from below a C average to above a C average. Two had made remarkable progress, raising D's and F's to A's and B's. All attended classes regularly, completed assignments and homework, and frequently participated in class discussions—school behavior that had infrequently, if ever, occurred prior to that year.

Likewise, the college students had changed their grades from below a C average to a C or above; in light of their very weak academic background, this was a remarkable achievement. They too developed school-appropriate be-



haviors: They routinely did homework and assignments, approached teachers for help and clarification, participated in class discussions, and associated with other college students.

With the disappearance of D's and F's and the appearance of A's and B's, an abundance of praise, interest, and attention was forthcoming from teachers. Moreover, with the increased incidence of praise and attention, the monetary reward became less and less necessary as a motivation for successful schoolwork. At the end of the academic year, in fact, two of the three college students voluntarily reported that they no longer needed money to study and, furthermore, that they were enjoying school for the first time in their lives.

Shortly after the students' grades began to improve, parents and siblings rewarded the students with praise and attention. The families took pride in the student's improved grades. For example, one mother told the counselor that in the past she had faithfully attended her son's football games but ignored his grades and schoolwork; she had never attended nonathletic school functions or met with teachers unless school personnel had requested her to do so. This had changed, she said, for now she was both proud of and concerned with her son's schoolwork and progress. Moreover, she began expecting her younger children to do nightly homework; she facilitated this by controlling their television viewing and initiating quiet study periods.

#### **EIGHT YEARS LATER**

The students or their families were contacted eight years later, by which time all the students could have completed high school and college. Follow-up information was obtained on all but one, a high school student who had moved from the area. No formal contact had been made in the interim, although from time to

time some of the students had phoned, visited, or met the counselor at community functions.

All the high school students had graduated from high school, a notable accomplishment in contrast to the 33 to 50 percent dropout rate of their classmates. Of the original seven high school students, five had gone to college. Three had graduated from a four-year college or university, one graduating from the University of California at Berkeley with a B average in architecture. Two other students have completed three years of college, and at least one of them will probably graduate eventually. It is likely that without the intervention of the Stanford program as many as four or five of the seven would not have graduated from high school and none would have attended college.

Each of the college students completed two years at the local community college and maintained a C average or slightly better. One student went on to complete a third year at a university, and another enrolled in a university for two quarters and then dropped out. The third student was drafted and subsequently died in Vietnam. Without a doubt, none of the three would have attended college or completed the two years of college had they not been in the program.

At the completion of one year of monetary reward, there were no appreciable differences between the academic performance of the high school and the college students, but after eight years there were noticeable differences. The earlier intervention that inculcated study habits resulted in longer-lasting, and thus more beneficial, effects. Those students who had begun the program as high school students attained more years of college education than those who had begun after high school. As noted above, five of the seven high school students completed three years of college; only one of the three college students completed that much college. Three of the



high school students graduated from college; none of the college students did.

Eight years after the initiation of the experiment, a surprising percentage of the siblings of the original ten students have attended college—89 percent of the siblings of the high school students and 100 percent of the siblings of the college students. Regretfully, the difficulties in determining whether other relatives, neighbors, and friends of the students were similarly influenced prohibited the task. In all probability, however, the students did exert a circle of influence beyond their brothers and sisters. ■

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## An Elementary Adjunct: High School Helpers

LEE C. SCHMITT, LARRY E. FURNISS

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The use of volunteers to enrich social service programs has come of age in this Aquarian era. Although college counseling has made the most use of peer volunteers (e.g., Dawson 1973; Hauer 1973), the need for increased personal attention to the social development of younger children has begun to bring this humanizing concept into the elementary schools (Varenhorst 1973). Recognizing that a child's attitudes and behavior are influenced primarily by adults, schools have added new models to bring changes in the process of attitudinal development (Maes 1966).

Despite the fact that identification with an adult model begins early in the elementary school years and continues throughout elementary school, the introduction of short-term models should have a positive social influence. High school seniors, because of their student status, experience, age, and visibility, are felt to be a valid source of models as friends in a helping relationship. On this premise, the Mt. Gilead (Ohio) schools organized a program in which senior students would work individually with elementary children in order to improve the children's social behavior.

The program was explained in detail to the senior class, and forty seniors volunteered to work as peer counselors with selected elementary students. They were screened on the basis of attitude, maturity, interest, and past experiences, and this process reduced the number to twenty. They were each to be assigned, on a one-to-one basis, to an elementary child.

Before the assignments were made, three training sessions were held with the volunteers to acquaint them with the growth, developmental aspects, and special needs of elementary-age children. These training sessions covered three topics: how children act at different age levels, what it means to be a good behavior model, and the importance of providing alternative paths of action. Volunteers were cautioned to take extra care when concerns regarding the home situation arose, since adverse parental reaction could be a detriment to the implementation of the program. Basic how-to discussions on being a volunteer counselor emphasized technique, individual roles, and the importance of listening to what the child says and does. One session with the school psychologist stressed the "I'm OK—You're OK" approach to working with children who do not see themselves as "OK." Each volunteer also met privately with each counselor for further training before being introduced to the elementary child and to the teacher involved. Any last-minute questions or concerns were worked out at this time, and the student was urged to keep in regular contact with either the elementary or the high school counselor in case problems came up.

The elementary counselees, from grades two through five, were chosen through teacher and counselor referrals on the basis of personal-social problems. Each teacher who had indicated an in-

terest in the program completed the Personal-Social Behavior section of Myklebust's (1971) *Pupil Rating Scale* for each child involved. The child was then interviewed by the elementary counselor, who used a similar rating device that had been developed locally; in essence, the children evaluated themselves on personal-social performance. These evaluations were then discussed with the volunteer assigned to each child in order to help each volunteer understand the child's situation. Some of the concerns were: feeling sad because of lack of peer acceptance; swearing; being careless; worrying excessively; being unable to relate socially with other students. All elementary students were asked individually if they would like a high school friend to help them; in all cases the answer was yes.

## IN OPERATION

Since the objectives of the program had been reviewed with elementary and high school teachers, there was no problem in getting full support for the project. Volunteers were excused from study halls and homerooms to visit the elementary classrooms, and teachers would then allow the child to leave the room with the volunteer. They might go over classwork together, relax in the gym, or just take a walk and talk things over. Often the volunteer would stay in the classroom to help the child relate with classmates and interact with the teacher.

The elementary students who were not involved in the program readily accepted the volunteers and soon began calling them "High School Helpers." They expressed an interest in having a Helper themselves, but they seemed to understand that the high school students were there for specific children and couldn't give their attention to everyone. Nonassigned students did compete for the attention of Helpers, but this did not



become a problem. As one fourth grade teacher observed, "The high school student was kind to everyone, but my students all realized that Randy was Bill's special friend."

Inservice meetings were held for counselors and Helpers during the year to discuss common concerns. The Helpers also saw the counselors individually to discuss problems and evaluate progress. As the program developed, each Helper set his or her own individual level of involvement. Some would visit the counselee daily; others could stop in only once or twice a week. Despite differences in the amount of time each Helper gave, feedback showed that the program was accepted and was having a positive influence on the participants.

### OBSERVING THE ACTION

One volunteer, a very understanding person working with a very introverted fourth grader named Terry, spent time playing with him on the playground during recess and also tutored the boy frequently in his worst subject, spelling. Terry was so discouraged with spelling that he often handed in half-finished spelling assignments. During their strolls at recess, the volunteer combined conversation with oral drills in spelling as the pair explored the playground together. When Terry started hiding poorer spelling papers from his Helper, it became obvious that their relationship had developed into something valuable to Terry. As he began to improve in spelling, other students started to encourage his progress. Gradually he became included in other students' groups more frequently, and he was even elected to an office in his class. Teachers, students, and Helpers who knew Terry at the beginning of the program were pleased with his growth during the year and felt that much of the credit belonged to Terry's High School Helper.

Divorce and the prospect of a step-

father often left Sandy, a fourth grade girl, at home with a baby-sitter. Since the divorce, Sandy had been getting into trouble at school by swearing at and fighting with other girls. Sandy's Helper frequently ate lunch with Sandy and her friends and joined in play activities with Sandy and other students on the playground. Sandy also had some weekend visits at her Helper's home. By the end of the year, Sandy's swearing and fighting had almost completely disappeared. The Helper, when asked what had caused the change, stated that the improvement began after Sandy started talking about her family problems. "All I really did was listen," she said.

A fifth grade teacher referred Donald to the counselor because the boy never completed his homework and was teased constantly by other students. He was rejected by students both inside and outside of the classroom; he really had no friends. He would act out in class, call other students names, and get into fights on the playground daily. The counselor decided to try assigning a Helper to Donald. The Helper soon discovered that Donald's main problem was in getting along with other students. With the counselor's direction, he formed a small group of boys Donald's age; the goal of the group was to help Donald get along with others. Through the use of role playing, in which members of the group acted out various personal-social problems, and through puppet play, in which peer problems were acted out, Donald gained the friendship of one group member. In addition, Donald's Helper saw him on an individual basis. Quite often they would work on Donald's homework or play his favorite game, checkers. Gradually Donald became more comfortable in telling his Helper about his peer problems and frustrations. At the end of the year Donald's teacher wrote the following evaluative comments: "I thought the volunteer program went very well. It certainly has



helped Donnie greatly. He has had little or no late work this last grading period, and I think it has even helped his image of self."

The leaders of the program were very pleased with the way the children would attempt to model themselves after their Helpers. One fourth grade teacher, commenting about two of her students who were involved in the program, reported that though these two children were slow students, they still took pride in the accomplishments of their Helpers and were able to improve themselves! It was also observed that the Helpers were benefiting by an increased awareness of their own abilities to understand and communicate with others.

### AS A RESULT

Toward the end of the program, teachers and students were asked to complete the same evaluation forms they had filled out previously. Pre- and post-ratings of the students' behavior gave ample evidence that the program was achieving its objective. Of the 14 children remaining at the end of the six-month project (in 6 cases either the child had moved or the volunteer had left), 11 showed significant improvement in their behavior ratings. While the number involved was small, the results do indicate that such a program can be successful in the elementary school. Teacher and volunteer reaction also justify the feeling that peer counseling is a useful tool for the professional. As one senior girl remarked, "I do feel that I have helped Mary in her outlook on school. She gets along better with her teacher and is determined to get good grades."

Teacher ratings and student self-evaluations were similar in most cases. Interestingly, in the three cases in which students evaluated themselves lower at the end of the year than they did at the beginning, the teachers also rated them lower.

### IN CONCLUSION

A newly recognized function of counselors is training others to assist in the helping process (Delworth & Moore 1974). Serving more people by teaching others to perform counseling functions promotes the scope of a total guidance program. Our experience leads us to conclude that using high school seniors to help elementary children can promote the objectives of counseling. However, it is important that the selection of the high school students, their pairing with the children, and their training be conducted by counselors and other members of the pupil personnel team to emphasize the qualities of a helping relationship. That relationship, however, although monitored by the counselor, should be allowed to develop on its own in order to facilitate Helper-child independence, respect, and mutual acceptance.

By involving High School Helpers as significant others, counselors can help elementary school youngsters solve many of their personal problems. They will thus be better prepared to meet the demands of secondary education and cope with the challenges of the changing age in which they live. ■

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# Fifteen Women

## MARSHA FOREST

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for some change occurs slowly . . . for me change came like a slap . . . a shock wave that altered my life . . .

it came on a rainy night in April while i was pouring tea . . . he began . . .

*while i was away at the conference i met an old friend from graduate school . . . i went to her room . . . kissed her . . . i wanted to sleep with her then . . . but i didn't . . .*

i calmly kept pouring the tea . . . i still wasn't fully hearing what he was saying to me . . . he continued . . .

*i love you with all my heart but my life seems to be drifting away from me . . . i'm over thirty . . . life is going by too fast . . . i need a chance to find out where i'm at . . . i know i want to see "her" again . . .*

i mumbled some words . . . sat down and began to weep . . . he began to cry too . . . words didn't seem to mean anything then . . . only our tears . . .

i think i must have known in that moment that my seven-year marriage was over and that a new life was about to begin . . .

my life changed fast . . . about one month after this initial conversation i had left him, i had rented and furnished my own apartment, i had been offered and had accepted an excellent job, and i was making my own friends for the first time in years . . .

the next few months were the most painful and at the same time the most important in my twenty-nine years . . . although my husband had initiated the shock it was i who made the next quick

move . . . once the door had opened a crack i decided to cross to the other side . . . i was scared and excited at the same time . . .

it was an awakening . . . i began to see a vision of the human being i could be . . . i began on the path toward that person lying inside me . . .

one event which helped me gain important insights into myself was a weekend encounter group—"Being A Woman"—the following is the story of this weekend group and of the fifteen women who participated . . .

it began in the blue room of a motel near the university . . . the drive there was terrible . . . a surprise snowstorm . . . in the past i would never have driven alone on a night like this . . . either my husband would have taken me or i would have stayed home . . . i felt good knowing i could handle the car myself in these rough conditions . . . i felt confident and capable as i entered the blue room . . .

i was one of the first to arrive . . . i enjoyed watching a series of wet people coming in the door . . . the storm was a common experience that brought us together . . . fifteen women . . . we sat on the floor in a circle . . .

Lyn introduced herself . . . she was the leader for this experience . . . a thin shapely woman with an alert intelligent face . . . she explained her goals and philosophy for the weekend . . . she told us this wasn't a therapy group . . . it was a short-term encounter group that would

allow us to glimpse what lay inside each of us . . . for some it might be painful . . . we were beginning . . .

*think of a name you want for these three days . . . get in touch with a name—with the process it takes to choose it . . . silence . . . i thought about it . . . i'll stick with my own name . . . that's who i want to be . . . me . . . Marsha . . . we went around the circle . . . Lyn chose the name Rosalind . . . her mother's name . . . another became the writer Anais Nin . . . a sad-faced young woman tried the name Joy . . .*

i admitted to the group that at another time i might want to try on a new name . . . at that moment i still couldn't give up Marsha . . . at first i thought anyone who wanted a new name must be frightened or insecure . . . why be another person i wondered . . . i realized then that i was the one who was frightened and insecure . . . what i had thought about others i was really thinking about myself . . .

women are . . . what are women anyway? . . . why have an all-women's group? . . . Lyn tacked large sheets of white paper on the wall . . . we began to write words that expressed our feelings about women . . .

|              |                   |               |
|--------------|-------------------|---------------|
| earth        | human             | sensitive     |
| soft         | full of potential | good          |
| flexible     | capable           | deep          |
| light        | generative        | interesting   |
| quick        | versatile         | unpredictable |
| mothers      | people            | sensual       |
| water        | strong            | intuitive     |
| verbal       | questioning       | beautiful     |
| giving       | attempting        | round         |
| pliant       | gossipy           | green         |
| earthy       | trustworthy       | confused      |
| wise         | lifegiving        | capable       |
| comfortable  | nurturing         | defensive     |
| bitchy       | controlled        | secret        |
| afraid       | powerful          | compassionate |
| human beings | pretty            | resourceful   |
| vulnerable   |                   |               |

what about men? . . . groans . . . laugh . . . soon we all were on our feet again writing words about men . . . we wrote . . . men are . . .

|              |                |            |
|--------------|----------------|------------|
| human beings | soft           | wrong      |
| selfish      | gentle         | big        |
| manipulating | fat            | fun        |
| frightening  | confused       | difficult  |
| love         | like mountains | smart      |
| pain         | strong         | thick      |
| tears        | tough          | bastards   |
| my need      | possessive     | generous   |
| my fear      | longing        | aggressive |
| power-driven | pretentious    | actors     |
| infuriating  | actors         | selfish    |
| needy        | little boys    | vain       |
| bullying     | hard           | heavy      |
| intelligent  | desirable      | objective  |
| ego-centered | people         | insecure   |
| loving       | giving         | emotional  |

convinced of their superiority  
unable to control anger  
drill ye tarriers drill and blast and fire  
single-minded and persevering  
fishermen casting out lines alone on the sea  
and coming back half-drowned  
obtuse and insensitive  
strong, durable, with deep roots  
tender like a hand  
bristle

Lyn next gave each of us a white card . . . "i am" statements . . . everyone was quiet . . . i could hear only fifteen pencils moving on fifteen pieces of paper . . . i wrote . . .

i am sweating  
i am a woman  
i am happy  
i am in love  
i am sexual and sensual  
i am expanding  
i am becoming myself  
i am accepting myself  
i am taking off my armor  
i am opening new doors  
i am learning to be free  
i am liberating me . . .

anyone who wanted to read her statement did . . . i shared my list . . . i was moved by the intensity of feeling in the circle . . . someone noticed that almost everyone had left the word intelligent off



her list ... wasn't it acceptable for women to be intelligent she wondered ... i thought about that ... i had not included it either ...

i am confused  
i am tormented  
i am afraid to love  
i am afraid of sex

Natalie read these sentences in a quaking voice ... she spoke of the problem garden within her ... would her garden grow into flowers or weeds? ... would she one day have to rip the thorny ones out by their roots or would they just disappear? ... she stopped and sighed ...

i am energy going forward  
i am a movie screen  
i am lights and action

some lists were full of energy and life ... others were filled with sadness ... all were filled with feeling ...

before sharing my list i made some "cute" comments and laughed nervously ... someone called my attention to this ... *you don't have to apologize for what you say* said Beth ... *just say it* ... that's right i thought ... i'm always apologizing for myself ... i want to express myself openly ... what i have to say is as worthwhile as what anyone else has to say ... i made a promise to work on that at home, at work, all over ...

the next morning we started by doing an exercise with our own bodies ... lying in my own private space on the now-familiar blue carpet i listened to the gentle music and the lilt of Lyn's quiet firm voice ... *study your hands ... let one be the leader and the other the follower* ... i played with my hands ... follow the leader ... i was enjoying myself dancing with my own hands ... Lyn's voice broke in ... *feel the hands on each side of you she suggested ... be aware of the temperature, the texture* ... i reached out to both sides ... the hand to my right felt big, long-

fingered, and bony ... the hand to my left was cooler, thinner, and didn't seem to make close contact ...

everyone sat up ... Karen told the group that her left hand did one kind of movement while her right hand did the opposite ... she reflected that this reminded her of how she often acted ... one part of her going one way, another part going in the opposite direction ... she was often confused she said ... Betty wondered if what she was feeling was "right" ... *there is no one right or wrong way to act* someone told her ... *i always need so much approval* she answered ... just like me i thought ... i realized again how much approval i needed ... from my mother ... from other authority figures ... i shared these thoughts ... many felt the same way ... we all agreed we especially wanted approval from men ... one good lesson i learned ... every time i want to ask a question i will try to turn it into a statement ... can i go now? vs. i want to go now ... what a difference ... i can make demands on my environment ... instead of being the receiver i will be the passer ... i'm feeling very excited ... stronger ...

Lyn had placed three full-length mirrors around the room ... she asked if we'd like to try to do some work with them ... silence ... Sharon volunteered ... she slowly stood up and faced herself in the mirror ... *what do you see? talk to your reflection* Lyn urged ... Sharon said *i see two shoulders ... one is lower than the other ... my neck looks stiff ... talk to your neck* Lyn said ... *neck, you look so stiff ... like you are carrying a heavy burden ... what's it carrying?* asked Lyn ... my head laughed Sharon ... *talk to your head this time* Lyn suggested ... *head, you are so bloody heavy, so weighed down with worries and troubles and fears* ...

Sharon began to cry softly ... she told us about her life ... she felt no one had time to listen to her ... everyone was important but her—a husband, two children, and no one to hear her feelings ...

as she spoke her body seemed to relax . . .  
*i feel better she told us and when i go home  
i'm going to demand some air time for myself*  
... she looked around at all of us ... she  
was smiling a warm smile ... i smiled  
back ...

one woman at a time faced the mirror  
... although everyone did not volunteer  
to stand up i felt each time one faced the  
reflecting glass each of us became part of  
the image ... we all became mirror im-  
ages of the mirror figure ...

i felt the intensity level of the group  
rising ... it was long past lunch hour ...  
if the thermometer had been inserted  
under the metaphorical tongue of the  
group we were up around 103° ... sud-  
denly Rachel, a large long-haired attrac-  
tive woman, began to tell a quiet story  
about herself, alcoholism, and what it  
meant to her ... although she had  
stopped drinking and was now an active  
social worker a fear haunted her ... she  
had once been in jail ... what would  
happen one day when her child grew up  
and found out her mother had been a  
hustler ... and a drunk ... her hands  
shook and her voice trembled as she  
spoke ... *maybe my child will want to go  
away from me and live with her grandmother*  
she cried ...

a play began ... a child and a grand-  
mother were chosen from among the  
faces in the circle ... a psychodrama was  
enacted ... the director, Lyn, led the  
players deftly through this living open  
theater production while the audience  
sat in muted silence ... when the play  
ended i was wet-eyed ... a few others  
were quietly crying ... the lead actress  
had seen that the answer to her fears did  
not lie in the child or the grandmother  
... the answer was within her ... it was  
she not the child who would not yet ac-  
cept herself, forgive herself, integrate  
the past and live in the present ... it  
didn't matter how many times her  
daughter told her that she loved her ...  
unless the mother could love herself it  
just didn't matter ... this theme was to be

repeated in different ways during the life  
of the group ...

Lyn suggested that we each write one  
sentence about the thing we wanted most  
... the cards were then placed in the  
center of the circle and mixed ...  
everyone would take a card and read it as  
if it were her own ... we never got past  
the first card ... Mary read the one she  
held ... *i want a full sexual relationship with  
a man* ... silence ... i felt we had avoided  
the issue of sex ... now it was facing us  
head on, no longer to be skirted around  
... suddenly the author of the card  
owned up to it ... Jamie's baby-soft voice  
began to describe her private agony  
about sex ... to me Jamie was a child-  
woman ... her voice told me she had  
gone to a posh East Coast girls' school ...  
i was right ... of all the women in the  
group Jamie annoyed me most ... she  
was too cute, too much the little girl, too  
sugar-and-spice ... as she began to talk i  
felt a bit guilty for some of my feelings  
... she was struggling too ...

*i hate to be touched she whispered ...  
before i was married sex was illicit, secretive,  
and fun ... now i feel it's a dirty chore i have  
to do ... i wish my husband wasn't so scared  
and hurried ... he's so young and fumbles at  
me ... we haven't made love for six weeks and  
i'm scared* ... Jamie was now crying ... i  
was crying ... all anyone wants is to love  
and be loved i thought ... that's what i  
wrote on my card ... i want an open  
loving relationship with another human  
being ... i felt i had found this intense  
and full love with Jeff ... that's what it's  
all about i said to myself ... openness  
and love ... understanding and love ...  
acceptance and love ... Jamie broke the  
spell of silent thought by imagining a  
large penis chasing her around her  
house ... the laughter that followed was  
a needed tension release ...

i had never cried in front of a group  
before ... i sat there so full of feeling and  
my tears felt warm and salty on my face  
... i felt each woman in the circle was  
part of a chain ... i felt a powerful sense

of self, at the same time feeling a unity with the others around me . . . i could stop fighting so hard to be different or special . . . i only had to be me . . . my very "meness" would make me a unique human being . . . in that moment i felt at one with all women—their sorrow, pain, fear, and joy were mine . . . were part of me . . . i felt linked to humanity . . .

Lyn suggested everyone find her own space again . . . each woman took a pillow and went off . . . some fell asleep . . . a few snuggled together like teenage girls at a pajama party . . . two laughed and fought for a pillow . . . when the mock fight was over one sobbed in the other's arms . . . and i began a journey into myself . . .

me and my pillow . . . i stroked you . . . then pounded you . . . i stood up and flung you to the ground . . . the anger never came . . . i am giving up the image of an angry me . . . i can get angry . . . anger at sexism-racism-poverty-injustice . . . but i am a lover . . . i am full of love, not full of anger . . . when my husband of seven years came back to see me after a three-month separation he said i was like a flower . . . fragile at times . . . strong and growing . . . *don't change* he said as he drove away from me that day . . . we both had tears in our eyes for a first love that

was now over . . . i walked home and sobbed in the arms of a new friend . . . a friendship and love born in equality and acceptance . . .

flashback . . . i had many that night . . . two men . . . and me . . . i crept to the mirror at the far end of the room . . . i held on to the pillow . . . no more holding on i thought to myself . . . let go . . . that's what it's all about too . . . letting go . . . of a husband . . . of parents . . . of the security so warm and safe . . . let go to risk the unknown . . . i threw the soft pillow away and faced myself in the mirror . . . it was as though i was seeing myself for the first time . . . although the lights were dim i saw clearly . . . in that darkened room i faced a strong determined woman . . . soft and beautiful . . . hair loose . . . clear eyes . . . then fear . . . i reached out to see if this me was really there . . . my face stared out at me like a mask . . . a death mask . . . death and life . . . am i death? . . . must part of me die to be reborn again? . . . i sat and stared at myself . . . no more a little girl in the looking glass . . . i felt i was expanding . . . i reached out for the pillow again . . . i knew who i was and could now reach out to others . . . i don't ever want to lose me again . . . i put my head on the pillow . . . ■



Except for my first year, I have closed each volume since June 1970 with a report of the facts about that volume's contents and some observations about the functioning of the JOURNAL. Since this is my last report as editor, I would like to use most of it for general observations, after a brief comment about Volume 53.

### **VOLUME 53**

Table 1 summarizes the salient facts. They are not very different from those of recent years. We continue to receive lots of manuscripts and lots of poems, and we continue to find rather few of them that are both appropriate for the broad-based P&G readership and of high quality as to ideas, practices, and writing. In fact, I have to say in all candor that the general level of manuscripts seems to be diminishing, but I haven't the slightest idea why this is so. I have a guess, but it is only a guess. As I have been writing crabbily in several places, I think that we are publishing too darned many journals and trying to fill too many pages in those journals. New journals—national and state—keep being born and increase the competition for the worthwhile writing that is available.

There is one thing in Volume 53 that I am especially pleased about, and that is a partial solution to the problem of research. I do believe that a journal such as this one should make its readers aware of pertinent research, but I also believe that most of the traditional research reports are not appropriate for us. Therefore, this year we introduced Richard Warner's "Research in Counseling" column, which provides brief summaries of research in selected areas, along with implications for counselors. I think it helps

fill the gap a little. Then we carried one large-scale research report of the kind I think is appropriate for a journal such as this one, the Prediger, Roth, and Noeth report (October 1974) of the ACT study on "Career Development of Youth." We published two full-length reviews of research, Oliver's on research on women (February 1975) and Brown's on para-professionals (December 1974), both representing another kind of research coverage that I think is suitable for us. And we published two articles about research methods that practitioners can use, one by Schmidt on the multiple baseline (November 1974) and the other by Burck and Peterson on evaluation methods (April 1975). These efforts will not satisfy everybody, certainly not those who are unhappy with a professional journal that doesn't have lots of tables and figures and statistics, but I believe that these efforts are the kinds of things that most of our readers find useful.

That should be about enough on Volume 53. With the aid of guest editors who brought us three "Specials," we found it possible to bring our readers somewhat more material than we could the previous two lean years, without in any way sacrificing quality; and we even had a few good articles about international topics. So on the whole, I feel that this was a year of modest progress.

### **THE LONG VIEW**

Seven years ago I was appointed editor-elect, so I had a full year to think about the directions that the JOURNAL should take and to try out some ideas on a number of people. I believe that I have had full opportunity to implement most of those ideas, and on the whole I feel

TABLE 1

Annual Report on the *Personnel and Guidance Journal*<sup>1</sup>

|                                                      | Volume 49<br>1970-71 | Volume 50<br>1971-72 | Volume 51<br>1972-73 | Volume 52<br>1973-74 | Volume 53<br>1974-75 |
|------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Manuscripts Received                                 |                      |                      |                      |                      |                      |
| Articles (unsolicited)                               | 501                  | 529                  | 458                  | 456                  | 438                  |
| Articles (invited)                                   | 46                   | 52                   | 39                   | 25                   | 46                   |
| Poems                                                | 19                   | 85                   | 116                  | 180                  | 195                  |
| Total                                                | 566                  | 666                  | 613                  | 661                  | 679                  |
| Manuscripts Published                                |                      |                      |                      |                      |                      |
| Articles                                             | 102                  | 108                  | 101                  | 94                   | 104                  |
| Poems                                                | 9                    | 23                   | 35                   | 30                   | 24                   |
| Total                                                | 111                  | 131                  | 136                  | 124                  | 128                  |
| Backlog of Unpublished Manuscripts                   | 1                    | 4                    | 4                    | 2                    | 0                    |
| Manuscripts Still in Review                          | 49                   | 25                   | 24                   | 11                   | 35                   |
| Number of Pages in Volume                            | 884                  | 856                  | 772                  | 728                  | 820                  |
| Number of Book Reviews in Volume                     | 91                   | 64                   | 111                  | 91                   | 76                   |
| Number of Etcetera Reviews (short reviews) in Volume | 82                   | 56                   | 69                   | 92                   | 73                   |
| Ad Pages                                             |                      |                      |                      |                      |                      |
| Paid                                                 | 123.80               | 101.50               | 90.00                | 82.00                | 89.75                |
| Exchange                                             | 5.50                 | 1.75                 | 2.00                 | 4.00                 | 1.00                 |
| Internal                                             | 34.00                | 40.50                | 14.75                | 11.00                | 26.00                |
| Number of Members                                    | 27,235               | 27,769               | 31,607               | 35,979               | 38,294               |
| Number of Nonmember Subscribers                      | 7,019                | 5,759                | 6,481                | 6,435                | 6,120                |
| Journal Print Order (average)                        | 38,000               | 37,600               | 37,900               | 42,900               | 46,000               |

<sup>1</sup>Manuscripts Received covers the calendar year period (e.g., Volume 53 manuscripts were received between January 1, 1974 and December 31, 1974). Manuscripts Published covers the volume year period (e.g., Volume 53 manuscripts published includes those from the September 1974 issue to the June 1975 issue).

good about the results. Not everybody agrees, but I have the impression that quite a few people do.

In essence, I believed then, in 1968, that this association needed a *professional* rather than a scientific journal as its major vehicle and that the professional journal should deal mostly with ideas and practices that, as far as possible, are of generic interest to our diverse membership. I believed also that we should practice what we preach, that the JOURNAL should communicate clearly and interestingly and should let the humanness of its writers and readers come through.

#### Implementing the New View

To accomplish all this, we did several things. First, we encouraged writing that addresses itself to important issues of the

time and that speaks directly to practitioners about ideas and concerns that affect them as practitioners. That meant that we rejected quite a few manuscripts that did not do these things—mostly manuscripts that reported research of limited scope in a technical way and manuscripts that dealt with well-worn ideas or practices. We paid a price for that selectivity: The JOURNAL immediately shrank from 100 pages to 80, and in later years even to 64. But with the concurrence of the Editorial Board, I was determined not to publish anything that did not seem really worthwhile reading for a substantial number of our readers. We could have stayed at 100 pages; in fact, we could have followed the route of most journals and even increased the number of pages. But I would have been

pained and embarrassed for us, and for people outside the field, to see such a collection of trivia, of trite show-and-tell, parading as representations of our field. Furthermore, I felt that a kind of modeling is involved, in the sense that what we publish is the best indicator to prospective authors of the caliber of material we'd like *them* to write. So we held the line, and each Editorial Board has sustained that policy.

To try to personalize the JOURNAL more, we asked authors to move away from the traditional impersonal journal style and to speak actively and humanly. "It is believed that" is not only awkward; it is also a copout if the author means "I believe that." Also to encourage a more personal kind of communication, we placed our letters-to-the-editor section in the front of each issue and followed it with an editorial that was usually pretty opinionated.

Poetry is not everybody's dish, but for many people it is a deeper kind of communication than prose. Poets, when they are good, cut through layers of padding and get to us in ways that at different times illuminate, disturb, inspire, and help to bring us together as human beings dedicated to common goals. So we published our first poem—hesitantly, I'll admit—and soon discovered that there are literally hundreds of aspiring poets out there, some of them really good.

We tried to brighten the appearance of the JOURNAL through graphic treatment of various kinds, but we were limited by budgetary restrictions. We changed the cover design several times, used photos and colored or screened pages on occasion, and experimented with different sizes, styles, and arrangements of type. None of these went as far as we would have liked, but they went as far as our budget and our small staff could stretch.

We introduced the Special Issue in the first volume and Special Features later. These not only brought us writing on topics that were insufficiently covered in

unsolicited manuscripts, but they permitted us to approach important topics in a concentrated and organized fashion. During the six years we brought out seventeen "Specials"—thirteen Special Issues and four Special Features—on a variety of topics: special needs of certain populations (blacks; Hispanics and Native Americans; women; Asian-Americans; and the corrections scene); new emphases (social revolution; mutuality; psychological education; thirty-six faces; and paraprofessionals); and selected topics we thought were important (technology; groups; ethics; conventions; outlook for the specialties; career guidance; and the 50th Anniversary Issue, which gave us a chance to look at our field in historical perspective).

There were some things we tried that did not get very far. The dialogue type of article seemed to be a good idea, but we received almost none. We hoped for more writing about international topics but found very little that we regarded as appropriate until the present volume year, when things picked up a little.

### Research Again

Then there is the topic of research. Perhaps readers have had their fill of my views on this subject, but I'm going to take advantage of this last chance to say my piece. Really, I'm not against research, but I *am* against publishing research that has nothing significant to say to anybody about anything (which is, I regret to say, much or even most of the published research). And I am even more against publishing, in a practitioner journal, research that does not speak to practitioners in language they can understand or does not report findings that they can generalize and apply to their own work. But this is a pretty complex matter, and I'd like to take a little more space to speak to it.

I don't expect that every piece of research that is conducted, or even all of the research that is published, will be



generalizable to other counselors in other settings. But I do think that no journal should waste its space and its readers' money on research reports that don't use the best available methods and designs and that as a result end up with more shortcomings and limitations than dependable findings. And I have to say that, in my judgment, most published research in our field (and probably in some other fields too) does not satisfy those criteria at a high enough level. Many of them are little local studies that should stay local. Some of them are of the caliber of "let's give a test and see what happens" or "let's whip up a questionnaire and send it out" or "let's correlate A and B and see what happens." Most such studies are done to collect Brownie points, and while I know all too well the publish-or-perish situation, I still think it's pretty silly to publish journals for the *purpose* of helping people get promoted. At least, that's a game I don't want to play. If some of our authors have received Brownie points for articles of theirs that we published, fine and good; if that was the authors' main motivation, I'm glad I didn't know about it, because it would have saddened me. We publish articles because we think they will be of value to our readers; everything else is secondary or even irrelevant.

Richard Warner, in his "Research in Counseling" column in this issue, discusses some of the shortcomings in the research he has been reviewing for us this past year. Let me add one thing to what he says. I think that we in the counseling field, and many of those in psychology as well, have been following the wrong research piper and have followed that piper almost to our destruction. We have taken our model from the physical and biological sciences, despite the fact that we are dealing with entirely different kinds of data. We have been using designs and techniques and statistics that were intended for precise, tangible data, when what we have is very

intangible and imprecise data. We may even convince ourselves that numbers carried out to four decimal points mean that the phenomena they represent are therefore measurable with that level of precision, but we are deluding ourselves to think that.

In fact, most of the phenomena we study—people's opinions, knowledge, insights, feelings—are not precise at all, and all the "instruments" in the world will not make them precise. Much of the time we really cannot do much better than to have knowledgeable, dependable observers look and listen and then report what they observe. Certainly there are problems of reliability and validity, but those problems are not automatically solved just because one constructs an "instrument" that can be objectively scored.

If you think we have a lot to lose by shelving the so-called precise and objective methods for the most part, read almost any competent research review. After dozens of hours of searching, reading, analyzing, and integrating, most reviewers end up with either no conclusions at all or conclusions that are either so vague and general or so obvious that one can only conclude that the research has little or nothing to offer, except perhaps to suggest further research.

Well, enough of that; the poor horse is exhausted and deserves a rest. But I felt the need to explain more fully than I ever could in an editorial the rationale for our policies. Not all members of our Editorial Boards over the six years have agreed with the rationale or the policies, but most have. I leave with the feeling that we have lived by our beliefs these years.

### MIXED FEELINGS

As I close my last volume, I have many mixed feelings. On the Editorial page in this issue I mention some of the people to whom I am especially indebted. As I have

said so many times, editing a journal such as P&G is, for my tastes, one of the most desirable and rewarding activities a professional organization has to offer. The editor has a kind of autonomy and opportunity to create that go far beyond what is possible in any other post I know of.

There are high points and low points in the work of an editor. Perhaps the highest point for me came in each week's mailing of manuscripts as they were forwarded from APGA; one never knows what new ideas and interesting writing will be in the package and will, six months or a year later, appear in print.

The low points? Well, just to give you an idea, take the author who, when asked to check a few obvious errors in an otherwise acceptable manuscript, replies with a list of 34 corrections and not a word of explanation, regret, or apology. When something like that happens, I get very anxious about the reliability of *everything* in the article. Or the delinquent book reviewer who, after six months of reminders, finally mails in a review that says in 1,000 words (when a maximum of 400 was requested) why the book has so little to offer our readers! Or the "famous person" whose manuscript is rejected and who then writes a stinging letter accusing us of bias or stupidity, or

demands to know the names of the reviewers who wrote "those idiotic comments" about the manuscript.

But then comes a note from an author who has just revised a manuscript for the second or third time and who says that it was a nuisance but that the article really *is* better as a result of our criticism and, if we still want some more changes, not to hesitate to ask.

So I leave with regrets, because it has been such a delightful and personally enriching experience (among other things, we get to read articles at least six months before anybody else). But I leave with a great deal of enthusiasm about the ideas that Derald Sue has already developed and is beginning to implement as I write these words. He has ambitious plans, plans that will require a great deal of proactivity on his part and on the part of his staff. These plans will also require a great deal of support, financial and otherwise, especially in the form of interesting writing by the people out there who have new ideas worth writing about and who are doing new things worth reading about. To find those people, to persuade them to write, and to rework the writing so that it is as sharp and clear and readable as it should be is the challenge he has undertaken and in which I wish him well. ■ Leo Goldman

# Research in Counseling

Richard W. Warner, Jr., Column Editor

*This column is based on the belief that research can provide meaningful data to the practicing counselor. While individual studies may not provide sufficient data on which to act, a combination of separate research efforts or a large-scale, long-term research project does have the possibility of providing sufficient data. This column will undertake to provide that data by either reviewing the current research in a specific area or examining the results from a long-term project. The emphasis will be on implications for the counselor, so there will be little if any information on research design or statistical procedures. Readers desiring more detail about a particular study should write directly to the original author(s). Readers who desire to have the results of their research and/or innovative approaches considered for review in this column should send the material to Richard W. Warner, Jr., Counselor Education, 2054 Haley Center, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama 36830.*

The purpose of this column has been and continues to be to examine the counseling research in specified areas and to draw from the findings implications for practicing counselors. In the process of developing the first four columns for this volume of the *PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL* (September, November, January, and April), we have encountered several problems. Some of the problems arose because of my own insufficient knowledge and because of the difficulties associated with producing anything new, but several concerned the literature that was being reviewed. It is this latter point to which I wish to address myself.

## GENERAL PROBLEMS

The topics selected for review in the first four columns ("Consulting with Parents," "Peer Counseling," "Counseling Blacks," and "Personal Education") were ones that I and others felt were receiving much attention within the profession, as evidenced by the great number of articles, papers, and research reports in all four areas. The articles, papers, and research reports seemed to fit into one of three categories: (a) subjective thought pieces, (b) research articles from which no broad generalizations could justifiably be made, and (c) good research and evaluation articles. Unfortu-

nately, the vast majority of articles and other research reports reviewed fell in the first two categories, only a very small number falling in the third category. Although I realize that those involved in writing the columns, including myself, did not have access to all the possible reports in any of the areas, I believe that the proportion of reports that was found in each of these categories is an accurate representation of the actual proportions. Based on these data, it seems that many within the profession are willing to make the assumption that their good intentions will translate into good results.

While not negating good intentions, good thought pieces, or even tentative pre-experimental research projects, I believe that these are not sufficient in an age when many of those who pay the bill for our counseling services are asking us, "How do you know you make a difference?" Good evaluation and research procedures can lead to answers to this question. As Kehas (1972, p. 1) has said, "How do we build knowledge and test it if not by inquiring systematically into experience, making some generalizations about it, and then testing those generalizations to see if our explanations are accurate and help us understand what is happening? Surely we need to know in order to do." Given that many, if not most, counselors would agree with Kehas, the



perplexing question is why there are so few well-designed evaluation and research efforts reported in the literature.

## **OBSTACLES TO EVALUATION AND RESEARCH**

### **Anti-Humanism**

One of the reasons for the lack of program evaluation and research may be the notion held by many within the helping professions that evaluation/research runs counter to concern for individuals. "Research [and evaluation are] tied up with science, which not only is considered as antithetical to the humanities and the arts, but also is associated with the dehumanizing of man. . . . Science for man is rarely seen as a possibility; rather, it is more often experienced as an incongruity" (Kehas 1972, p. 1). Such a position leads individuals to rely on their "gut feelings" about what works; they so fear the "dehumanizing" effects of evaluation/research procedures that they ignore the potential benefits. Certainly there have been and are flaws in evaluation/research methodologies, but does that mean we should throw out the baby with the bathwater? Certainly there have been misuses and abuses of research and evaluation procedures, and certainly we do need to be somewhat critical and cautious of evaluation. However, evaluation and research are tools for determining what does or does not work, and as such they need not and should not be rejected (Kehas 1972). As individuals concerned about helping others, we have an obligation to search for the best means of accomplishing our mission.

### **Practical vs. Theoretical Research**

Another part of the problem may be due to misconceptions about what constitutes good evaluation and research. Burck and Peterson (1975), in an article that I recommend to readers of this column, addressed this very concern. One of their contentions is that what is needed is more evaluation of ongoing programs and less theoretical research. While not agreeing completely with the dichotomy they make between research and evaluation—I think good evaluation can be good research—I do agree that well-designed program evaluation is imperative and is the kind of research we really need.

At the heart of this problem may be the fact

that institutions that prepare counselors place emphasis on "original" research. In a search for original research, particularly at the doctoral level, do we unconsciously negate the benefits that could be derived from studies that attempt to replicate previous findings? Have we lost sight of the fact that many of the important gains in our knowledge about counseling are the products of long-term research with repeated replications? Perhaps we need to redirect the major thrust of our research efforts toward replications and programmatic research.

### **The Scientific Method**

A third obstacle that appears to prevent program evaluation is counselors' and counselor educators' adherence to a rigid set of beliefs about what constitutes "proper" research and evaluation methodology. As pointed out by Burck and Peterson (1975), most counselors have completed one course in statistics and perhaps one course in research design. In both of these courses the emphasis tends to be on sophisticated statistics and research methodologies. While these concepts are important, they are not the only means by which to evaluate programs. There are, for example, several research designs referred to as either "intensive design" (Thoresen & Anton 1974) or "multiple baseline" (Schmidt 1974) that do not require large numbers or complex statistics. Unfortunately, few counselors are aware of these procedures. The point is that there are research methodologies that can be used in program evaluation, and many of them do not require a high level of research sophistication.

We will explore these research designs in more detail in future columns. In the meantime, counselors may wish to examine the writings of Thoresen and Anton (1974), Schmidt (1974), and Burck and Peterson (1975) as they relate to nontraditional approaches to evaluation. Three books that should be helpful to counselors are those by Cramer, Herr, Morris, and Frantz (1970); Campbell and Stanley (1967); and Burck, Cottingham, and Reardon (1973). Another is the book edited by Abrams, Garfield, and Swisher (1973); while it was written to help drug educators evaluate their programs, the principles discussed in it should be useful for any program evaluator. Of particular impor-

tance are the chapters "Specifying Objectives" (by Abrams and Swisher), "Evaluation Management" (by Blum and Garfield), and "Basic Experimental Designs" (by Horan).

### Specification of Objectives

A fourth obstacle to evaluation/research concerns program objectives. Research or evaluation is undertaken in an attempt to determine whether a specified method does or does not achieve the stated goals of the program. This means that a prime requisite for solid evaluation/research is the establishment of sharply defined goals or objectives prior to the program's implementation. A review of the counseling literature indicates that this crucial first step in program development is often done in a hurried or cursory fashion. Our tendency is to try to get a program started—and later to decide what the objectives were. Many of the reports reviewed for the columns on "Consulting with Parents" (September 1974) and "Peer Counseling" (November 1974) seemed to suffer from this problem: Either objectives were not specified or, more commonly, the stated objectives were so nebulous that they were almost impossible to measure with any degree of accuracy.

Counselors and administrators must take the time in planning programs to ask some critical questions. What are the characteristics of the target population? How should clients' behaviors, attitudes, or knowledge be changed by the program? What does the research literature say about similar programs? These are only a few of the possible questions that can be asked, and the answers to them can provide a program administrator with a base for establishing a program that has clear objectives. The more specific those objectives, the better the probability for a meaningful evaluation. This is not only the necessary first

step in developing a program, but it is also the first step in the evaluation process.

### CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this particular column has been to delineate some of the problems we identified in the literature while preparing the first four columns for this volume of P&G. Those problems seem to revolve around two themes. The first is a rather narrow conception of proper evaluation/research procedures, and the second is our tendency to get involved in programs before we are really sure why we are getting involved. This column has attempted to deal briefly with these research problems; future columns will delve into each of these concerns in more depth.

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# What to tell a student who's thinking of joining the Marines.



Tell him the same things that we suggested a parent say to his son. After all, students come to you for advice, too. Here's how we put it in a recent *Reader's Digest* ad:

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# Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006.

**Assessing Minority Group Children** edited by Thomas Oakland and Beeman N. Phillips. Behavioral Publications, Inc., 72 Fifth Ave., New York 10011. 1974. 413 pp. \$9.95.

A hardbound special issue of the *Journal of School Psychology*, this assemblage of invited articles brings together theoretical and practical considerations in the sensitive area of minority group assessment. Among topics covered are assumptions underlying psychological testing, criterion-referenced and norm-referenced assessment (more modest than "measurement"), and assessment implications of differential language characteristics. Catchy chapter titles: "Does the Pot Melt, Boil, or Brew? Black Children and White Assessment Procedures" and "Cultural Myopia: The Need for a Corrective Lens."

**Perspectives on Human Sexuality: Psychological, Social and Cultural Research Findings** edited by Nathaniel N. Wagner. Behavioral Publications, Inc., 72 Fifth Ave., New York 10011. 1974. 517 pp. \$14.95 hardbound, \$6.95 paperback.

Grouped in four sections, 23 previously published articles touch on such ticklish topics as psychosexual stimulation, anatomic and orgasmic male/female differences, sexual dimorphism, premarital and in-pregnancy sex, mastur(and Ms.tur?)bation, and even self-conception. Racial, national, and social class comparisons are offered. Wagner provides five brief introductions. In one he points up both Freud's contribution (his lead-off man) and bias: "The concept of penis envy stands as the pinnacle of his perception of female sexuality." A book bound to arouse readers' interest.

**To Die with Style!** by Marjorie Casebier McCoy. Abingdon Press, 201 Eighth Ave. South, Nashville, Tennessee 37202. 1974. 175 pp. \$5.95.

For some readers this little book could be a useful introduction to the outwardly no longer taboo topic of death. Since—as with sex—"everybody's doing it," why not talk about it? Such talk is not easy, however, and McCoy seems to strain as she makes a virtue of a necessity: Death can be an *achievement* (her emphasis throughout) if you die in your own style. She overdoes the use of exclamations(!) and of quotations in both frequency and length. She does offer readers a wide exposure to both professional literature and pertinent *belles lettres*.

**Making Sense: Exploring Semantics and Critical Thinking** by Robert R. Potter. Globe Book Company, Inc., 175 Fifth Ave., New York 10010. 1974. 245 pp. \$3.60 paperback.

Intended as a text for classroom use, this meticulous manual on general semantics makes sense for P&G'ers unfamiliar with the writings of Korzybski, Hayakawa, and other apostles of accurate communication. Structured in eight units, the 16 chapters cover such topics as map vs. territory, the "allness attitude," the two-valued orientation (the "either-or disease"), the power of propaganda, nonverbal communication (the "semantics of silence"), and thinking by analogy—the 100-item test with answers might help those preparing for the Miller Analogies Test. A refresher course, at least, on traps and pitfalls of thought and language.

**College Placement and Exemption** by Warren W. Willingham. College Entrance Examination Board, Box 2815, Princeton, New Jersey 08540. 1974. 272 pp. \$6.95 hardbound, \$4.95 paperback.

"This report is narrowly concerned with one general means of adapting education to individual differences: to group students into alternate educational treatments according to cognitive differences in academic ability or knowledge of subject matter." Specific means covered are assignment (grouping by similar ability), selection (grouping by different ability), placement (at optimal point in sequence), and exemption (for demonstrated proficiency). The highly technical discussion is supplemented by numerous tables, figures, and references and by an annotated bibliography.

**Humanizing the Workplace** edited by Roy P. Fairfield. Prometheus Books, 923 Kensington Ave., Buffalo, New York 14215. 1974. 265 pp. \$11.95. **Man against Work** edited by Lloyd Zimpel. William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 255 Jefferson Ave. S.E., Grand Rapids, Michigan 49502. 1974. 247 pp. \$3.45 paperback.

Overlapping in content and authors, these two books have concluding third sections respectively titled "New Directions" and "Coping," both having earlier presented issues and instances illustrating technological and cultural changes and new worker values and attitudes. Fairfield offers multiple prefaces (Zimpel has one), but half the chapters in this overpriced book are from a single issue of a particular magazine. Zimpel offers equally recent material but errs in his sexist title. Yet two pertinent compilations for P&G'ers.

**The Crisis in Middle Management** by Emanuel Kay. American Management Associations, 135 W. 50th St., New York 10020. 1974. 168 pp. \$9.95.

Middle management, "the funnel through which the intentions of top management flow down and through which information about the organization flows up," is in crisis because it is caught in the middle. Kay depicts middle managers as looked down upon by top management and ill regarded by subordinates. Sources of job dissatisfaction discussed are

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## **Cass & Birnbaum's COUNSELORS' COMPARATIVE GUIDE TO AMERICAN COLLEGES**

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inequitable salary, job insecurity, lack of authority, career inflexibility, and obsolescence—some middle managers have been replaced by computers, which don't complain. The bulk of the book offers strategies for coping and effecting change.

**Jobs for Which Apprenticeships Are Available. Jobs for Which a High School Education Is Preferred, but Not Essential. Jobs for Which a High School Education Is Generally Required. Jobs for Which Junior College, Technical Institute, or Other Specialized Training Is Usually Required. Jobs for Which a College Education Is Usually Required.** Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212. 1974. Unpaginated. Single copies free.

Ranging from 10 to 18 pages, these pocket-size pamphlets offer plentiful information, selected from the 1974-75 *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, regarding occupations (used interchangeably with "jobs") requiring particular levels of preparation, specific qualifications and training, 1972 employment figures, and employment opportunities and trends to 1985.

# Book Reviews

*Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to the Editor, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.*

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|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| <b>New Approaches to College Student Development</b> by Arthur L. Tollefson                                                                                 | p. 798 | <b>Therapeutic Needs of the Family: Problems, Descriptions and Therapeutic Approaches</b> edited by Richard E. Hardy and John G. Cull | p. 802 |
| <b>Guidance: Foundations, Principles and Techniques</b> by Edward C. Glanz                                                                                  | p. 799 |                                                                                                                                       |        |
| <b>Outcome Management Applied to Pupil Personnel Services</b> by William P. Mease and Loren L. Benson                                                       | p. 799 | <b>Growing Pains: Uses of School Conflict</b> by John P. DeCecco and Arlene K. Richards                                               | p. 802 |
| <b>Student Development and Education in College Residence Halls</b> edited by David A. DeCoster and Phyllis Mable                                           | p. 800 | <b>P.S. 2001: The Story of the Pasadena Alternative School</b> by Philip H. DeTurk                                                    | p. 803 |
| <b>A Study of Child Varlance. Volume 3: Service Delivery Systems—Conceptual Project in Emotional Disturbance</b> edited by William C. Rhodes and Sabin Head | p. 801 | <b>Ethical Standards in Counselling</b> edited by H. J. Blackham                                                                      | p. 804 |

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**New Approaches to College Student Development** by Arthur L. Tollefson. New York: Behavioral Publications, Inc., 1975. 150 pp. \$9.95.

For its fine treatment of philosophical questions as well as suggestions for practical solutions, I recommend this book to students and professionals concerned with college student development. The book reports the findings of an exploratory study of new practices and approaches to student development and provides a listing of over 48 programs, along with institutions and resource people to contact. In addition to making this very pragmatic contribution, the author synthesizes these approaches into trends that have implications for student personnel work and higher education.

Four separate chapters are devoted to describing some approaches thought to reflect major trends. The greatest emphasis is given to the chapter on opportunities for the educationally disadvantaged. Included are descrip-

tions of about 20 programs for disadvantaged students. A second chapter discusses programs providing more personalized services for students who typically were not served in the past, including women, older students, commuters, and disabled students. This chapter is provocative but includes only 12 programs, and only one of those is specifically for women. Two additional chapters include curricular innovations that focus on students' understanding of their own needs and development and on the need to build a sense of community at institutions of higher learning. The author notes counselors' tendency to be increasingly involved in outreach programs, teaching, and consulting with other educators.

The author offers a model of an institution of higher education that incorporates the principles he sees as underlying the basic trends discussed in earlier chapters, and he uses specific programs as illustrations. This



model would have to be adapted to the individual and changing needs of any given institution, but it is certainly a thoughtful and concrete point of departure for constructing a working model for a particular school.

There are several weaknesses in this book; to some extent the author has anticipated them. Selection of the programs described was based on the subjective evaluations of people in the field and not on objective criteria. The author notes that by the time objective data could be obtained, the practices might be out of date. It seems that even as the book was being written, current conditions—including economic pressures and growing conservative attitudes among students—affected students' needs. Paradoxically, at a time when, according to Tollefson, changes in higher education have resulted in the growing importance of the role of student development specialists, it appears that budget concerns seem to threaten the freedom with which these specialists function.

In spite of these few shortcomings, this is an excellent book for members of the student development profession.—*Judith Berman Brandenburg, Queens College of CUNY, Flushing, New York.*

**Guidance: Foundations, Principles and Techniques** by Edward C. Glanz. (Second edition.) Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1974. 443 pp. \$10.95.

Edward Glanz has not only done a ten-year update of his first edition, but he has made substantial changes in the content of the book. In his first chapter, "Rebellion, Reform, and Revolution," he has tried to sketch the changes that have swept away the more traditional role of counselors. Relevance and truth, however dimly perceived by the student, are at the heart of the process, according to the author. "The young person has now accepted the offers of counselors and guidance persons to help him become free and responsible—but free and responsible in terms of his life and values, not the lives and values of the older generation."

In his second chapter, "The Nature and Purposes of Guidance," Glanz makes a clear effort to redefine guidance and counseling in the light of the new awareness of what people are and ought to be. "Whether vocational goals or personal creativity is at issue, a per-

son's evaluation of the purposes he establishes is an outgrowth of his essential nature." These values become central to the process, since "guidance and counseling activities must be involved in such value-acquiring and the accompanying construction of life purposes."

Having demonstrated the "now" nature and needs of the client, the author settles into a somewhat traditional treatment of the process of individual and group counseling as well as an overall view of the operation of the guidance program. The school procedures, the types of programs, and the involvement of parents, teachers, community, and others are all very adequately but traditionally treated in the remaining chapters. In fact, the emphasis is heavily on techniques of guidance, and the counseling process is treated rather generally in a single chapter.

In summary, this book will be a valuable resource to the experienced counselor who may need to be reminded that "the guidance counselor from another generation may be of little help if he has no knowledge, has a fixed view of what is best for all persons, and is not willing to learn—learn many times—from the very young he is trying to help." It will also be valuable to all persons who are trying to determine where the school counselor fits in this "now" generation. Edward Glanz has done a good job of putting guidance into perspective in the rapidly changing decade of the seventies.—*Thomas D. McSweeney, University of San Francisco.*

**Outcome Management Applied to Pupil Personnel Services** by William P. Mease and Loren L. Benson. St. Paul, Minnesota: Minnesota Department of Education, 1973. 112 pp. \$2.50.

The authors take the reader by the hand as they lead the way through a systematic approach to Self-Other Outcome Management that has worked for them. With local modifications as needed, it should work for others.

Why this monograph? The authors say, "It is our belief that we will either deal effectively with this accountability issue ourselves or we will be instructed, in perhaps more restrictive terms, by others to meet unrealistic criteria for success. Self-Other Outcome Manage-

ment (SOOM) includes processes through which we can productively meet the requirements of accountability. Individuals within pupil services must seek reasonably objective evidence that allows them both to answer questions for themselves concerning effectiveness of outcomes and communicate this data to the groups concerned.

"Do we know what we really want to do and accomplish? How does this correlate with what needs to be done? How will we know whether we've done it or not? This monograph is devoted to outlining processes which hopefully will lead us to answers to these questions."

A series of well-placed exercises helps the reader develop SOOM skills while moving through the publication. The authors emphasize and reemphasize their dictum that "outcomes achieved by others are the best indications we have of our own job performance." Procedures set down are calculated to foster personal growth rather than place any tight restrictions on the practitioner. Free rein is given to stating the outcomes one expects to achieve, not just those outcomes that may lend themselves to easy evaluation. The authors follow a popular sales approach: telling you what they are going to tell you, telling it to you, and then telling you that they told it to you. This approach, however, does seem justifiable in light of the important issues covered in this monograph.

Throughout the text, good operational definitions of key concepts (e.g., needs, goals, significant environment) help keep the system tight. Indeed, they are prerequisites for effective evaluation designs.

The authors make it very clear that they are offering no panacea. They do hold out their hand of assistance, though, along the way to more effective accountability systems. In this way they contribute information about ways to improve pupil services for the recipients of these services and for those who pay the bill for the services.

In their overview of the publication, the authors state, "Being clear about what it is we want to achieve is the first giant step toward achieving it." If you are clear in your interest in making progress in outcome management, this publication could help you along the way.—James M. O'Hara, *Denver (Colorado) Public Schools*.

**Student Development and Education in College Residence Halls** edited by David A. DeCoster and Phyllis Mable. Washington, D.C.: American College Personnel Association, 1974. 278 pp. \$4.50 paperback.

This is a book about a hope. The hope is expressed in the quote from Nicholas Murray Butler, who, while he was president of Columbia University in 1922, said, "The provision of residence halls is quite as important and as essential a part of the work of the University as is the provision of libraries, laboratories, and classrooms" (p. 151). Anyone who is familiar with the field must wonder to what degree the hope has been realized and to what degree one can expect it to be.

This book is specifically directed to persons who hold the hope. It is well conceived, as reflected in the headings of the four major sections: "Student Development and Education," "The Interpersonal Environment and Human Relationships," "Residence Hall Personnel," and "Credibility for the Future." Within these sections are some excellent chapters. Coons' analysis of the developmental tasks of college students is based on the identity theories of Erikson and integrates the work of many who have approached development from the point of view of task mastery. The Williams and Reilley summary of the research is encouraging in that there is a body of knowledge from which one can draw for programmatic decision making; yet it is disappointing in that they draw each of their 22 conclusions from only one or two studies. Katz's paper on coeducational living brings together the most recent, even if limited, data on what is still a controversial issue on most campuses. The chapter on accountability by Stimpson and Simon is one of the best I know in both content and readability.

There are some chapters that one has to read because the hope they express is so relevant, so specific, and so intriguing: Hardee's "Politics, Pluralities, and the Student Development Perspective" and Crookston's "A Design for an Intentional Democratic Community."

Much of what is presented is a reiteration of previous rhetoric in the field. What seems unforgivable, however, is the evident lack of careful cross-editing of the individual chapters. For example, there appear in the Duncan chapter references to Katz's previous in-



terpretations of coed housing that are in direct contradiction to statements made by Katz in the present volume. The least one might expect of the editors is an acknowledgment of such discrepancy in the views of adjacent authors, especially when one is using the other as a source.

It is unfortunate that, in the 52 years since Butler acknowledged the importance of residence halls, a systematic theoretical analysis with consequent applications cannot be made by a single author. This edited volume of readings seems indicative of the limitations to the hope that spawned it.—Clyde A. Parker, *University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.*

**A Study of Child Variance. Volume 3: Service Delivery Systems—Conceptual Project in Emotional Disturbance** edited by William C. Rhodes and Sabin Head. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, Institute for the Study of Mental Retardation and Related Disabilities, 1970. 667 pp. \$1.25.

This massive volume, the third in a series of three that comprise the project designated "A Study of Child Variance," focuses on the major behavior-regulating agencies in society. The previous two volumes deal with the theories and conceptual models of treatment and intervention techniques employed in working with variant children.

This volume is concerned with service delivery systems; its format is a compilation of 18 papers. An introductory paper by senior editor Rhodes and Mark Ságor establishes a frame of reference and a historical overview, and the other 17 papers present the treatment of deviance by six societal systems and institutions. For each of the systems there is a historical perspective, a delineation of the structure and organization, and a case study depicting the implementation of the particular service.

The papers, each of which is a major section of the book, are remarkably uniform in quality. It would be misleading, however, to state that they are all equally gripping or equally demanding of one's attention. The parts may be of greater significance than the whole, especially to counselors, guidance personnel, and general educators. Indeed, the thrust of the book is decidedly one with a special education orientation; the editors, in fact, state that the Project "addresses its works primarily to special education."

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I found to be of greatest interest the papers on the history of treatment by each of the systems—the educational, the legal-correctional, the mental health, the social welfare—and by the religious and counterculture institutions. For those who are in a position to make decisions affecting the course and direction these systems and institutions take, the last three sections, which deal with counterculture institutions, are of the utmost importance. The alternative systems suggested by the countercultures offer different sets of responses to the established definitions and perceptions of human variance, and the challenges to our efforts at resolution of the attendant problems may fade with a conceptual restructuring that leads us to ask different questions.

I recommend this book highly to all those concerned with the lives of children who are different. I believe that counselors, special educators, and administrators alike—irrespective of background, experience, or length of service—can gain new perceptions from the insights shared by the gifted contributors to the Project.—*Eric Seidman, University of Maryland, College Park.*

**Therapeutic Needs of the Family: Problems, Descriptions and Therapeutic Approaches** edited by Richard E. Hardy and John G. Cull. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1974. 240 pp. \$11.75.

This book is the 15th in a series on social and rehabilitation psychology edited by Cull and Hardy. The book is directed at assisting "psychologists and counselors in understanding some of the problems and in providing some suggested approaches in working with" the family unit.

There are 12 chapters, and apparently only 3 have been published previously (2 in another book by Cull and Hardy, *Climbing Ghetto Walls*, published in 1973). In addition to the editors, who contributed an initial chapter, there are 14 contributors, most of whom seem to have had only limited exposure in other publications. The chapters focus on group work, crisis intervention, separation and divorce, delinquency, the dying child, orgasmic problems, and counseling techniques.

On the surface the book seems to be a significant source for personnel and guidance

workers, but it has many limitations. First, the title stakes out a claim on a broad territory, but the book fails to cover the breadth of the topic adequately. The title leads one to assume that there is to be a wealth of therapeutic material and an in-depth analysis of the family unit; such is far from the case. Second, the chapters are for the most part composed of superficial writings (one notable exception is Marjorie Kawin Toomim's chapter, "The Child of Divorce"). As with the book's title, many of the chapter titles are expansive, much beyond the actual scope of the material. Third, there is little, if any, continuity between the chapters, and the editors provide no integrative comments. Fourth, the book places much emphasis on delinquent behavior, at the exclusion of other, more generic (and more important) "family" issues.

There are two positive points. Several critical topics—such as the dying child and children in divorce—are considered, although the quality of the analyses must be questioned. The strong practical tone of the book has the potential of benefiting the practitioner, but again the excerpts from counseling interactions and suggested guidelines are frequently incomplete and/or naive. (Relatively speaking, Gordon A. Harshman does offer some interesting activities for improving self-understanding and the decision making process in his chapter, "Alternatives to Divorce and Their Implications.")

This is but one of many books currently available on the family unit. It is not likely to compete successfully with numerous other family counseling books that do offer personnel and guidance workers learned, yet pragmatic, information. The editors can, however, be cited for fulfilling one objective: They have added another book title to their series.—*Robert Henley Woody, Ohio University, Athens.*

**Growing Pains: Uses of School Conflict** by John P. DeCocco and Ariene K. Richards. New York: Aberdeen Press, 1974. 269 pp. \$8.95.

The flyleaf of *Growing Pains* describes this as a "how-to" book about conflict—how to use conflict to help students and school adults resolve their conflicts and thus create better schools in the process. The authors use as

"co-authors" over 8,500 high school students, parents, teachers, and administrators who participated in a recent research project on civic education under the auspices of Columbia University's Center for Research and Education in American Liberties.

The authors hold a rather dismal opinion of the contemporary American high school, calling it a "warehouse for the temporary storage of young people." They liken high school students to rats in a maze who are forced to do whatever the experimenters (school officials, teachers) want. DeCecco and Richards' hope is that what they serve up in their book will help young people and adults find an alternative, better way to education.

The book is a practical handbook on how to recognize, deal with, and—one hopes—resolve conflicts. Certain chapters are keyed to some of the subgroups of the school: Chapter 5 is recommended reading for teachers who have difficulty in handling anger; chapter 9 presents a model for negotiation for school administrators; chapter 7 ("The Good and Bad Guys") addresses itself to students and adults and deals with understanding the other's point of view; and chapters 3 and 4 are for parents who wish to make an effort to get a better education for their children. And, as the authors state, "School counselors who want to do more than diagnosis and referral may find alternatives in this book."

The authors' model for school reform—the creative use of conflict to resolve differences—makes sense. Their chapters on "Talking Angry" and "Acting Angry" are particularly solid and, if taken out of the context of this book, would serve as a worthwhile introduction in a primer on how to deal effectively with anger.

Student (and adult) commentaries are sprinkled generously (perhaps too generously) throughout. Also, these comments were carefully selected to promote what the authors are selling, only scant attention being given to the other side of the issue. The resultant feeling one gets is that, for the most part, the students wear the white hats and the adults the black hats.

All in all, the book does serve a useful, however limited, purpose for school counselors who want to make their schools more humane and democratic places in which to live, teach, and learn. It doesn't have all the

answers (nor does it claim to), but it does zero in strongly on using conflict—not avoiding or suppressing it—for the betterment of schools. *Growing Pains* could hardly be called "must" reading for school counselors, but it is, on the whole, interesting and thought-provoking reading.—Lewis B. Morgan, Villanova University, Villanova, Pennsylvania.

**P.S. 2001: The Story of the Pasadena Alternative School** by Philip H. DeTurk. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1974. 133 pp. \$4.95 paperback.

Although this book has a title suggesting life in the 21st century, the events reported cover a 30-month span in the life of an alternative school between 1971 and 1974. Counselors who are unfamiliar with the concept of alternative schools should find this small volume of interest. In addition, it presents a challenge to our profession because the bulk of alternative schools reject the need for counselors and see teachers, parents, and students fulfilling counselors' usual roles.

The Pasadena Alternative School took roots in a small New England community housing the University of Massachusetts. Led by Dwight Allen and a number of enthusiastic followers, the National Alternative Schools Program was created. Its purpose was to seek out school systems desiring innovative changes in traditional patterns of schooling. In the fall of 1971, Pasadena, California, entered such a relationship to create a new and different form of alternative school.

*P.S. 2001* began on a small scale. Only 50 students from 4 to 18 years old were selected for the initial trial period. They were deliberately chosen from preestablished quotas to maintain the ethnic balance of a community with a 49 percent Anglo and a 51 percent minority population. Teachers and other staff also were selected to reflect the ethnic diversity of the community. Once students and staff had hastily volunteered, *P.S. 2001* began in February of 1972 in three rooms formerly housing kindergarten children.

The author presents the brief 30 months of the Pasadena Alternative School with an impassioned and crusading zeal. He describes an alternative school as "a community of learners who have chosen a different means of satisfying their educational desires" (p. 15). Unfortunately, the bulk of the book is more



concerned with the desires of the learners than with the tough epistemological questions underlying the process of education. Counselors who deal daily with students in traditional schools should be stimulated by a description of a K-12 school with no counselors and an unlimited choice of courses and use of time. The model presented raises the question of just how much traditional schools have cast counselors in the roles of quasi-administrators and clerks.

*P.S. 2001* suffers too much from the romanticism of the Holts, Goodmans, Kohls, Kozols, and Neills. Unfortunately, the author of this book seems to feel that all that preceded *P.S. 2001* was oppressive and outmoded. His answer therefore is to reject all of traditional education and forge ahead with love and honesty. Until such time as the staff and students of *P.S. 2001* deal with the basic question of how to determine which experiences and experiments are educative and which are merely "experiences," they will be forced to slow their Space Odyssey to the same pace as other mortals in search of educational utopias.—Roger F. Aubrey, Brookline (Massachusetts) Public Schools.

**Ethical Standards in Counselling** edited by H. J. Blackham. London, England: Bedford Square Press of the National Council of Social Service, 1974. 69 pp. £ 0.80 sterling.

The Standing Conference for the Advancement of Counselling is an organization that acts as a forum for ideas about counseling in the United Kingdom and sponsors conferences, working parties, and publications on topics of common concern or special difficulty. It is not a validating body for counseling—no more than any other organization in Britain is at present—but it has become inevitably part of what might be described as a general movement toward the establishment of standards of training and practice. This orientation is reflected in this publication, a report of the deliberations of a

working party set up by this body to examine ethical standards in counseling.

Two points about the book should be mentioned at the outset. First, allowing for the list of contributors, table of contents, blank pages, and so on, there are no more than 60 full pages of text. Second, it is really not so much a book as a collection of eight papers presented by members and edited with a preface by the convener of the working party. The shortest contribution, entitled "Selection, Training and Supervision," is less than 1,000 words long.

Moving from fact to opinion, I have some other reservations. Many of the papers are lightweight in content as well as in length. The reasons for the selection and arrangement of the papers are not clear, and there is considerable variation in quality and probably in interest for an American audience. The quality of the writing at times leaves much to be desired. One of the better papers, for example, is turgid and obscure and is characterized by the use of jargon and other shortcuts that shift the responsibility for explanation from the writer onto the reader. It is particularly relevant, I think, to refer to this point, as it is a type of criticism often leveled in Britain at American textbooks.

To some extent the book is representative of a cross-section of counseling concerns and styles of approaching them in Britain today. Some of the following emphases, for example, are noteworthy: the exclusion of reference to private practice; the suggestion that "in human society sharing is the normal mode and . . . the quest for the 'special relationship' is sick" (p. 41); the stress on psychodynamic theory and the downplay of decision making as a basic life function; an attempt to link up social casework principles with counseling concerns. While too much should not be expected from such a slender publication, it may be of considerable interest to readers of a comparative turn of mind.—Patrick Hughes, University of Reading, Reading, England.





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## PAGINATION

|                      |         |                     |         |
|----------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
| September 1974 ..... | 1-84    | February 1975 ..... | 405-484 |
| October 1974 .....   | 85-180  | March 1975 .....    | 485-548 |
| November 1974 .....  | 181-244 | April 1975 .....    | 549-628 |
| December 1974 .....  | 245-340 | May 1975 .....      | 629-724 |
| January 1975 .....   | 341-404 | June 1975 .....     | 725-820 |

## AUTHOR INDEX

*NOTE: Names in italics indicate authors or editors of books reviewed. Names followed by an asterisk indicate material other than articles (poems, fantasy, humor, personal statements). All others are authors of articles.*

- |                                            |                                        |
|--------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|
| Aanonsen, Richard G. 378                   | Brandenburg, Judith Berman 11          |
| Alexander, Jaclyn J. 768                   | Brock, Gregory W. 299                  |
| Allen, Bernadene V. 774                    | Brodey, Warren 535                     |
| Allen, Edmund E. 276                       | Brodsky, Stanley L. 163                |
| Allen, Ray A. 146                          | Brolin, Donn E. 686                    |
| <i>American College Testing Program</i> 71 | Brown, Stephen J. 512                  |
| <i>Appley, Dee G.</i> 241                  | Brown, William F. 257                  |
| <i>Appley, Lawrence A.</i> 390             | <i>Browning, Philip L.</i> 626         |
| <i>Asbury, Frank R.</i> 79                 | <i>Brownstone, Jane E.</i> 395         |
| Atkinson, Donald R. 123                    | Bryson, Seymour L. 20                  |
| Avent, Catherine 41                        | Burck, Harman D. 563                   |
|                                            | <i>Bureau of Labor Statistics</i> 797  |
| Balzer, Fred J. 79                         | <i>Burton, Arthur</i> 169              |
| Bardo, Harold R. 20                        | <i>Bushnell, David S.</i> 170          |
| Barr, Reginald 761                         |                                        |
| <i>Beckman, Linda</i> 169                  | <i>Campbell, David P.</i> 616          |
| <i>Beitz, Charles</i> 397                  | <i>Cassell, Phyllis</i> 616            |
| <i>Belcher, David W.</i> 234               | <i>Chickering, Arthur W.</i> 618       |
| Benjamin, Libby 694                        | <i>Childers, William C.</i> 79         |
| Benoit, Robert B. 501                      | Christensen, Edward W. 349             |
| Benson, Arland N. 656                      | Christie, Charles A. 43                |
| <i>Benson, Loren L.</i> 468, 799           | <i>Cinnamon, Kenneth M.</i> 468        |
| Berger, Emanuel M. 193                     | <i>Clemens, Bryan T.</i> 398           |
| <i>Bersi, Robert M.</i> 536                | Cody, John J. 20                       |
| <i>Blackham, H. J.</i> 804                 | Colley, Sanford 610                    |
| Blake, Richard 733                         | <i>Cook, Barbara</i> 175               |
| Bleck, Robert 604                          | <i>Coop, Richard H.</i> 477            |
| Blocher, Donald H. 656                     | Core, Carrie 327                       |
| Boone, John O.* 135                        | Corrigan, Rick 329                     |
| Bottoms, James E. 676                      | <i>Council on Private Practice</i> 617 |

Crocker, James W. 453  
 Cronbach, L. J. 176  
 Cross, Frank R. 623  
 Cross, K. Patricia 469  
 Cull, John G. 177, 178, 396, 476, 478, 538,  
 619, 802  
 Culp, William H. 78

Danish, Steven J. 299  
 Dave, Indu 44  
 Davis, Sandford S. 534  
 DeCecco, John P. 802  
 DeCoster, David A. 800  
 Deen, Nathan 45  
 Del Giorno, Joseph E.\* 199  
 Delworth, Ursula 57, 335  
 DeMoss, Robert T. 315  
 Desselle, R. Eric 79  
 DeTurk, Philip H. 803  
 Doll, Clifford G. 531  
 Donn, Patsy A. 72  
 Donovan, Carey 329  
 Drapela, Victor J. 438  
 Drenth, P. J. D. 176  
 DuBrin, Andrew J. 534, 616  
 Dye, Carol J. 395  
 Dye, Larry L. 130

Eiduson, Bernice T. 169  
 Epps, Shirley 46

Fairfield, Roy P. 797  
 Fantini, Mario D. 480  
 Farwell, Gail F. 482  
 Favela, Frank 319  
 Felkenes, George T. 71  
 Felker, Sally A.\* 445, 608  
 Flater-Benz, Lottie 281  
 Forest, Marsha 782  
 Foster, Herbert L. 534  
 Fox, Robert W.\* 671  
 Frangicetto, Tom\* 738  
 Franks, Cyril M. 535  
 Fredman, Norman\* 570  
 Friend, Jeannette G. 78  
 Fuller, Edward F. 374  
 Furniss, Larry E. 778  
 Furniss, W. Todd 176  
 Fuzessery, Zoltan 319

Galinsky, M. David 388  
 Gamache, Janice M. 166  
 Gamsky, Neal R. 482  
 Gartner, Alan 253  
 Gazda, George M. 79  
 Gelwick, Beverly Prosser 214  
 Gerler, Edwin R., Jr. 187  
 Gibson, Robert L. 76  
 Gillie, Angelo C., Sr. 170  
 Gilmore, Susan K. 77

Gladding, Samuel T.\* 39, 110, 192, 429,  
 520, 746  
 Glanz, Edward C. 799  
 Gleazer, Edmund J., Jr. 170  
 Gluckstern, Norma B. 153  
 Glueck, William F. 241  
 Goldman, Bert A. 617  
 Goldman, Leo 787  
 Goldstein, Susan B. 543  
 Gordon, Jesse E. 289  
 Gordon, Sol 390  
 Gosciewski, F. William 600  
 Graham, Patricia Albjerg 176  
 Grant, J. Douglas\* 149  
 Guardo, Carol J. 493  
 Guidance Centre, University of Toronto 388  
 Gumaer, Jim 604  
 Gutgold, Margie Lynn\* 500, 598  
 Gysbers, Norman C. 647

Hall, Brian P. 398  
 Hammons, James O. 521  
 Hansen, Lorraine Sundal 638  
 Hardy, Richard E. 177, 178, 396, 476, 478,  
 538, 619, 802  
 Harman, Robert L. 363  
 Harrington, Thomas F. 174  
 Harris, Roy 47  
 Hatch, Raymond N. 482  
 Head, Sabin 801  
 Healy, Charles 626  
 Hebler, Jean R. 471  
 Hecker, Benson 150  
 Heikkinen, Charles A. 446  
 Heneman, Herbert G., Jr. 534  
 Herr, Edwin L. 76  
 Higgins, Earl B. 382  
 Higgins, Robert E. 76  
 Hill, Clara 571  
 Hill, George E. 468  
 Hillman, Bill W. 761  
 Hilt, Philip J. 624  
 Holland, John L. 517  
 Hollis, Joseph W. 72  
 Hopson, Barrie 542  
 Horne, Linda M.\* 104  
 Hough, Patricia 542  
 Hoyt, Kenneth B. 471  
 Hummel, Dean L. 480  
 Huskey, Hyrum H., Jr.\* 26

Insel, Paul M. 72  
 Island, David 592  
 Ivey, Allen E. 137, 747

Jacobs, Alfred 538  
 James, Charity 616  
 Jasmine, Frank 140  
 Jenks, Marilyn 326  
 Johnk, Barbara L.\* 373



Johnson, Diane A. 676  
*Johnson, Roosevelt* 396  
 Johnson, Willis L. 71  
*Johnston, William B.* 471  
 Jones, G. Brian 663  
  
 Katz, Judith K. 105  
*Kaufman, H. G.* 392  
*Kay, Emanuel* 797  
*Keeslar, Oreon* 170  
 Kelly, Gary F. 111  
*King, Stanley H.* 239  
*Kirby, Joe* 78  
*Kirby, Jonell H.* 78  
 Knapp, Nancy H. 105  
 Kopplin, David A. 367  
*Koren, Elaine Todd* 394  
 Kramer, Dawn 330  
*Krantzler, Mel* 170  
  
*Lass, Abraham H.* 616  
*Laudicina, Robert* 393  
*Leavitt, Harold J.* 72  
 Leonard, George E. 668  
 Leone, Patrick 57  
 Leppaluoto, Jean R. 747  
 Lessner, Johanna W. 33  
 Levenstein, Aaron\* 646  
 Leventis, Demetrios 49  
*Levin, Peter A.* 237  
*Levitan, Sar A.* 471  
 Lewinstein, Sibyl Adlen\* 753  
 Lewis, Michael D. 357  
*Lifton, Robert J.* 170  
*Lindsey, Ouida* 546  
*Lindsey, Paul* 546  
 Lipman-Blumen, Jean\* 680  
 Loesch, Larry C. 604  
*Lopez-Ibor, Juan J.* 169  
 Lynch, William, Jr. 332  
  
*Mable, Phyllis* 800  
*Mace, David* 234  
*Mace, Vera* 234  
*Madsen, William* 390  
*Mahoney, Michael J.* 236  
 Main, Allen P. 754  
 Mars, Susanne\* 421, 577  
*Mathieu-Coughlan, Philippa* 482  
 Matthews, Esther\* 652  
 Mayer, G. Roy 501  
*Mayhew, Lewis B.* 71  
*McCormick, Ernest J.* 232  
*McCoy, Marjorie Casebier* 796  
*McCoy, Vivian* 616  
 McKinnon, Byron E. 663  
*Mease, William P.* 468, 799  
*Menacker, Julius* 174  
 Mendel, Werner M. 169  
*Mihalka, Joseph A.* 171

*Miller, G. Dean* 468  
 Miller, Juliet V. 694  
 Miller, Natalie Wilson\* 19  
*Miller, Richard I.* 390  
 Millick, Julie 57, 324  
*Minahan, Anne* 169  
*Miner, John B.* 546  
 Mitchell, Anita M. 700  
*Mitchell, Marianne H.* 76  
 Moore, Earl J. 647  
 Moore, Kathryn McDaniel 578  
 Moore, Marv 57, 308  
*Moos, Rudolf H.* 72  
 Morgan, Lewis B. 557  
*Morris, Kenneth T.* 468  
 Mozée, Elliott\* 208  
*Myrick, Robert D.* 232

*National Commission on Resources for Youth*  
535

Neil, Thomas C. 150  
 Nelson, Ronald H.\* 362  
 Nickens, John Thomas\* 207  
 Nicoletti, John 281  
 Noeth, Richard J. 97

*Oakland, Thomas* 796  
*Odiome, George S.* 390  
*Ohlsen, Merle M.* 481  
 Olaoye, Ezekiel Olaniyi 51  
 Oliver, Laurel W. 430  
*Olmstead, Joseph A.* 234  
 Olsson, Patricia M. 672  
*O'Toole, Richard* 535

Pearl, Arthur 264  
 Peavey, Barb S. 325  
 Penczar, John T. 761  
*Permaul, Jane S.* 535  
*Peters, Herman J.* 478  
 Peterson, Gary W. 563  
*Phillips, Beeman N.* 796  
*Pincus, Allen* 169  
*Pondy, Louis R.* 72  
 Ponzo, Zander 27  
 Portalatin, Maria 331  
 Potter, Micki 328  
*Potter, Robert R.* 796  
 Prediger, Dale J. 97  
 Pulleyblank, Ellen F. 217

*Ralston, Nancy C.* 388  
 Reis, Ernest 142  
*Rever, Philip R.* 169  
*Rhodes, William C.* 801  
*Rice, Laura North* 622  
 Rice, Louis C. 367  
*Richards, Arlene K.* 802  
 Richards, Charles O. 221  
 Richardson, Frank D. 592

Riessman, Frank 253  
 Rist, Walter N. 142  
 Roark, Albert E. 624  
 Roark, Albert E. 754  
 Rønnestad, M. Helge 52  
 Rosner, Henry Zacharias 65  
 Rosow, Jerome M. 232  
 Roth, John D. 97  
 Rudow, Edward H. 294  
 Ruiz, Aureliano Sandoval 462  
 Russell, John\* 760  
 Ryan, Frank L.\* 716

*Sage Publications, Inc.* 234, 469

*Saint, Avice* 240  
 Sansbury, David L. 117  
 SanSouci, James P. 130  
 Sattler, Jerome M. 234  
 Saunders, John L. 617  
 Schaeffer, Alice 526  
 Schlossberg, Nancy K. 681  
 Schmidt, Jerry A. 200  
 Schmitt, Kara Lynn 739  
 Schmitt, Lee C. 778  
 Schmuck, Patricia A. 400  
 Schmuck, Richard A. 400  
 Schulman, Eveline D. 468  
 Schutz, William C. 542  
 Scott, Randolph R.\* 690  
 Scott, Stephan H. 228  
 Sessions, John A.\* 645  
 Shaffer, John B. P. 388  
 Shephard, Roy J. 617  
 Shertzer, Bruce 395, 478  
 Sies, Luther F. 543  
 Skinner, B. F. 476  
 Slocum, Walter L. 474  
 Smith, Darrell 398  
 Smith, Maury 398  
 Specter, Gerald A. 545  
 Spille, Henry A. 61  
 Spradlin, Wilford 538  
 Srebalus, David J. 415  
 Stafford, William B. 544  
 Stanford, Barbara 388  
 Stanford, Gene 388, 624  
 Stauffer, Ernst 53  
 Stein, Gordon B. 61  
 Stogdill, Ralph M. 469  
 Stone, Beverly 175  
 Stone, Shelley C. 395  
 Strohmenger, C. Todd\* 584  
 Sue, Derald Wing\* 550  
 Super, Donald E.\* 492  
 Superintendent of Documents 232

Taylor, Milton H. 458  
 Tennyson, W. Wesley 638  
 Thomas, G. Patience 388  
 Thomas, Lucinda E. 285

Thomas, William G. 535  
 Thoni, Richard J. 672  
 Thoresen, Carl E. 236  
 Tiedeman, David V. 706  
 Tiffin, Joseph 232  
 Tolbert, E. L. 470  
 Tollefson, Arthur L. 798  
 Tosi, Donald J. 74  
 Tramutola, Joseph L. 393  
 Trela, James E. 535  
 Trivett, David A. 469  
 Truax, Darcy\* 662  
 True, John E. 304  
 Tubbs, Ace L. 72

Unruh, Glenys G.\* 711

Valley, John R. 469  
 Varenhorst, Barbara B. 271  
 Vermont Student Assistance Corporation 617  
 Vriend, Thelma J. 668

Wagner, Nathaniel N. 796  
 Wall, Judy 768  
 Walters, Richard P. 79  
 Walz, Garry R. 712  
 Warnath, Charles F. 422  
 Warner, Richard W., Jr. 68, 228, 382, 610  
 792  
 Warren, Phyllis 357  
 Washburn, Michael 397  
 Watts, Carol K.\* 511  
 Weinrach, Stephen G. 557  
 Wenner, Kate 153  
 Westman, Jack C. 72  
 Wexler, David A. 622  
 White, Kinnard P. 477  
 Wicks, Robert J. 540  
 Williams, Gertrude J. 390  
 Williams, Ken 238  
 Willingham, Warren W. 797  
 Wilson, G. Terence 535  
 Winder, Alvin E. 241  
 Wishnoff, Robert 507  
 Wittmer, Joe 232  
 Wollman, Michael 676  
 Woody, Jane Divita 178  
 Woody, Robert Henley 178  
 Wrenn, C. Gilbert 534  
 Wroblewski, Michael 453  
 Wyne, Marvin D. 477

Yager, Geoffrey G. 585  
 Yates, Richard I. 285  
 Yoder, Dale 534  
 Young, Carl E. 304

Zax, Melvin 545  
 Zimpel, Lloyd 797  
 Ziv, Avner 55

## SUBJECT INDEX OF ARTICLES

### COUNSELOR SELECTION, TRAINING, AND EVALUATION

- Academic Advising Reaches Out 61
- Associate Degree Programs for Human Services Workers 304
- Career Development of Youth: A Nationwide Study 97
- Changes Ahead! Implications of the Vail Conference 747
- Comparative Guidance through International Study 438
- The Current Status of Paraprofessional Training 299
- An Elementary Adjunct: High School Helpers 778
- Emerging Career Guidance Competencies 700
- Inservice Training in the University 150
- A Model for Training Workshops and Labs 592
- Needed: More Evaluation, Not Research 563
- An Open-Entry/Open-Exit System for Preparing Counselors 374
- Paraprofessionals in a Drug Education Program 294
- Paraprofessionals in a Large-Scale University Program 276
- Peer Counseling 228
- Research in Counseling 792
- Training Adolescents as Peer Counselors 271
- Training Faculty to Do Career Advising 214
- Training Professionals to Work with Paraprofessionals 308
- Training Student Volunteers 57

### THE PROFESSION: SOCIAL CONTEXT, ROLES, ETHICS

- Adapting Systems to People 137
- Associate Degree Programs for Human Services Workers 304
- Beyond Career Development—Life Career Development 647
- A Bill of Client Rights and Responsibilities 557
- Black Concern with Behavior Modification 20
- A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement 638
- Changes Ahead! Implications of the Vail Conference 747

- Comparative Guidance through International Study 438
- The Cooling Out of Two-Year College Women 578
- Counseling Blacks 382
- Counseling in Gerontology 733
- Counseling Implications of Recent Research on Women 430
- Counseling Puerto Ricans: Some Cultural Considerations 349
- The Counselor and Armed Forces Recruitment 357
- A Counselor and Change: Reminiscences and Resolutions 27
- Crossing Cultural Barriers: A View from Lagos 217
- The Current Status of Paraprofessional Training 299
- The Development of Paraprofessionals in Employment Work 289
- Effectiveness of Paraprofessionals: The Evidence 257
- Guidance U.S.A.: Views from Abroad 40
- Housewife, Mother, Other: Needs and Helpers 105
- New Options for College Study 739
- The New Professional Emerges 319
- The Paraprofessional as Administrator: An Innovative Role 315
- The Paraprofessional Movement in Perspective 253
- Paraprofessionals in a Drug Education Program 294
- Paraprofessionals as Guerrillas: Recommendations for System Change 335
- Paraprofessionals in a Large-Scale University Program 276
- Paraprofessionals in Minority Programs 285
- Paraprofessionals and Social Change 264
- Paraprofessionals Speak Out: What It's All About 324
- Personal Commitment: Challenge for Change 163
- Rethinking Change in Counseling 415
- Structuring Personal Integration into Career Education 706
- Student Personnel Services in the University Without Walls 507
- Swinging into the Future 712
- Tomorrow's Horoscope for Today's Counselor Types 208
- Toward a New Era in Corrections 130
- Toward Professional Commitment through Risking and Sharing 187
- Training Adolescents as Peer Counselors 271



Training Professionals to Work with Paraprofessionals 308  
 Vocational Theories: Direction to Nowhere 422  
 Volunteers in a Community Mental Health Agency 281

## **INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP COUNSELING; CONSULTATION**

Academic Advising Reaches Out 61  
 Activity Group Guidance: A Developmental Approach 761  
 Affective Education through Role Playing: The Feelings Class 604  
 Assertive Training in Groups 117  
 A Bill of Client Rights and Responsibilities 557  
 Career Planning Inventories: "Do-It-Yourself" Won't Do 512  
 The Change Process Applied to Career Development Programs 656  
 Chicano Group Catalysts 462  
 A Consensus Method to Reduce Conflict 754  
 Consulting with Faculty: Necessary and Possible 367  
 Consulting with Parents 68  
 Counseling Blacks 382  
 Counseling Rejected Applicants: Feedback for Career Development 446  
 Crossing Cultural Barriers: A View from Lagos 217  
 An Elementary Adjunct: High School Helpers 778  
 Fifteen Women 782  
 A Gestalt Point of View on Facilitating Growth in Counseling 363  
 A Guidance Center Provides Time to Counsel 221  
 The Helping Process as Developmental Existentialism 493  
 Invited Comment: Dilemmas and Remedies 517  
 Irrational Self-Censure: The Problem and Its Correction 193  
 Lay Psychology Books as an Aid to Counseling 123  
 Meeting Career Needs in Two-Year Institutions 676  
 Mental Imagery in Counseling 111  
 A Model For Training Workshops and Labs 592  
 A New Behavioral Emphasis: Turning the Inside Out 585  
 Paying Students to Learn 774  
 Peer Counseling 228  
 Personal Education 610  
 Photo Counseling 600

The Poem as Catalyst in Group Counseling 33  
 A Process Approach for Establishing Counseling Goals and Outcomes 571  
 A Rational-Emotive Workshop on Overcoming Study Blocks 458  
 Recipe for an Interesting Career Presentation 531  
 Research Techniques for Counselors: The Multiple Baseline 200  
 Rethinking Change in Counseling 415  
 Systems Orientation to a Systems College 521  
 Three Practices to Reach Students 65  
 Timeout: Guidelines for Its Selection and Use 501  
 Using Recreational Games in Counseling 453

## **VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND ADJUSTMENT**

Agency Settings for Career Guidance 686  
 Alternate Sources of Information about the U.S. Military: A Bibliography 526  
 Beyond Career Development—Life Career Development 647  
 Career Development of Youth: A Nationwide Study 97  
 A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement 638  
 Career Planning Inventories: "Do-It-Yourself" Won't Do 512  
 The Change Process Applied to Career Development Programs 656  
 The Cooling Out of Two-Year College Women 578  
 Emerging Career Guidance Competencies 700  
 Field Testing a Comprehensive Career Guidance Program, K-12 663  
 Housewife, Mother, Other: Needs and Helpers 105  
 Invited Comment: Dilemmas and Remedies 517  
 Meeting Career Needs in Two-Year Institutions 676  
 New Career Development Strategies: Methods and Resources 694  
 Programs for Adults 681  
 Recipe for an Interesting Career Presentation 531  
 Structuring Personal Integration into Career Education 706  
 Swinging into the Future 712  
 A Systematic Career Development Program in a Liberal Arts College 672  
 Training Faculty to Do Career Advising 214

Update: The Developmental Career Guidance Project 668  
Vocational Theories: Direction to Nowhere 422

### **SCHOLASTIC DEVELOPMENT AND ADJUSTMENT**

Academic Advising Reaches Out 61  
Activity Group Guidance: A Developmental Approach 761  
Beyond Career Development—Life Career Development 647  
A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement 638  
The Cooling Out of Two-Year College Women 578  
Counseling Rejected Applicants: Feedback for Career Development 446  
An Elementary Adjunct: High School Helpers 778  
Field Testing a Comprehensive Career Guidance Program, K-12 663  
Housewife, Mother, Other: Needs and Helpers 105  
Inmates Go to College 146  
Juvenile Corrections: It Starts Here 142  
Meeting Career Needs in Two-Year Institutions 676  
The Model Program at Berkshire 153  
The Needs of Women Returning to School 11  
New Options for College Study 739  
Paying Students to Learn 774  
A Rational-Emotive Workshop on Overcoming Study Blocks 458  
A Systematic Career Development Program in a Liberal Arts College 672  
Systems Orientation to a Systems College 521  
Update: The Developmental Career Guidance Project 668

### **PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT AND ADJUSTMENT**

Activity Group Guidance: A Developmental Approach 761  
Affective Education through Role Playing: The Feelings Class 604  
Assertive Training in Groups 117  
Beyond Career Development—Life Career Development 647  
Black Concern with Behavior Modification 20  
A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement 638

A Consensus Method to Reduce Conflict 754  
Consulting with Faculty: Necessary and Possible 367  
An Elementary Adjunct: High School Helpers 778  
Field Testing a Comprehensive Career Guidance Program, K-12 663  
Fifteen Women 782  
Irrational Self-Censure: The Problem and Its Correction 193  
Lay Psychology Books as an Aid to Counseling 123  
Mental Imagery in Counseling 111  
The Needs of Women Returning to School 11  
Personal Education 610  
The Poem as Catalyst in Group Counseling 33  
Research Techniques for Counselors: The Multiple Baseline 200

### **TECHNOLOGY AND MEDIA**

Alternate Sources of Information about the U.S. Military: A Bibliography 526  
Guidance Public Relations via Radio and Newspaper 378  
Lay Psychology Books as an Aid to Counseling 123  
New Career Development Strategies: Methods and Resources 694  
Photo Counseling 600  
Recipe for an Interesting Career Presentation 531  
Systems Orientation to a Systems College 521

### **SPECIAL GROUPS**

#### **Disadvantaged and Minorities**

Black Concern with Behavior Modification 20  
Chicano Group Catalysts 462  
Counseling Blacks 382  
Counseling Puerto Ricans: Some Cultural Considerations 349  
Paraprofessionals in Minority Programs 285  
Paying Students to Learn 774

#### **Other**

Adapting Systems to People 137  
Alternate Sources of Information about the U.S. Military: A Bibliography 526  
The Cooling Out of Two-Year College Women 578

Correctional Literature and Other Resources 166  
 Counseling in Gerontology 733  
 Counseling Implications of Recent Research on Women 430  
 The Counselor and Armed Forces Recruitment 357  
 Diversion as an Alternative to Incarceration 140  
 Fifteen Women 782  
 Housewife, Mother, Other: Needs and Helpers 105  
 Inmates Go to College 146  
 Juvenile Corrections: It Starts Here 142  
 The Model Program at Berkshire 153  
 The Needs of Women Returning to School 11  
 Personal Commitment: Challenge for Change 163  
 Programs for Adults 681  
 Toward a New Era in Corrections 130

## **ENVIRONMENTS**

### **Elementary and Secondary School**

Activity Group Guidance: A Developmental Approach 761  
 Affective Education through Role Playing: The Feelings Class 604  
 Career Development of Youth: A Nationwide Study 97  
 The Change Process Applied to Career Development Programs 656  
 A Consensus Method to Reduce Conflict 754  
 A Counselor and Change: Reminiscences and Resolutions 27  
 An Elementary Adjunct: High School Helpers 778  
 Field Testing a Comprehensive Career Guidance Program, K-12 663  
 A Guidance Center Provides Time to Counsel 221  
 Paying Students to Learn 774  
 Recipe for an Interesting Career Presentation 531  
 Three Practices to Reach Students 65  
 Training Adolescents as Peer Counselors 271  
 Update: The Developmental Career Guidance Project 668

### **College and University**

Academic Advising Reaches Out 61  
 Assertive Training in Groups 117  
 Associate Degree Programs for Human Services Workers 304

Consulting with Faculty: Necessary and Possible 367  
 The Cooling Out of Two-Year College Women 578  
 Counseling Rejected Applicants: Feedback for Career Development 446  
 Inmates Go to College 146  
 Juvenile Corrections: It Starts Here 142  
 Meeting Career Needs in Two-Year Institutions 676  
 The Needs of Women Returning to School 11  
 New Options for College Study 739  
 Paraprofessionals in a Drug Education Program 294  
 Paraprofessionals in a Large-Scale University Program 276  
 Paraprofessionals in Minority Programs 285  
 Paying Students to Learn 774  
 Student Personnel Services in the University Without Walls 507  
 A Systematic Career Development Program in a Liberal Arts College 672  
 Systems Orientation to a Systems College 521  
 Training Faculty to Do Career Advising 214  
 Training Student Volunteers 57

### **Other**

Adapting Systems to People 137  
 Agency Settings for Career Guidance 686  
 Correctional Literature and Other Resources 166  
 The Development of Paraprofessionals in Employment Work 289  
 Diversion as an Alternative to Incarceration 140  
 Inmates Go to College 146  
 Juvenile Corrections: It Starts Here 142  
 The Model Program at Berkshire 153  
 The Paraprofessional as Administrator: An Innovative Role 315  
 Personal Commitment: Challenge for Change 163  
 Programs for Adults 681  
 Toward a New Era in Corrections 130  
 Volunteers in a Community Mental Health Agency 281

## **APGA BUSINESS; PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS; PUBLICATIONS**

Closing My Last Volume 787  
 Righting the Wrongs of Writing: Copy Editors Speak Out 768



## POETRY, FANTASY, AND HUMOR

- The Bandid Man 520  
Career Guidance 584  
Client 570  
Counseling Jabberwocky 19  
Denial 577  
For Bob, in Room Seventeen 511  
For Me . . . From Us 207  
Healing 445  
Here and Now 746  
Jargon 421  
The Man with All the Answers 738  
Noah 753  
Ode to an Anecdote 500  
Page 118 373  
Patchwork 39  
Portraits 110  
Reaching Out 362  
Reflections 429  
Rekindling 760  
The Rise and Fall of the Tested Jungle 598  
Silent Dancers 608  
Stat Static 26  
They Come Armed 199  
To My Young Sisters Beginning Their Journey 104  
Tomorrow's Horoscope for Today's Counselor Types 208  
With Cautious Understanding 192

## TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

- Career Planning Inventories: "Do-It-Yourself" Won't Do 512  
Invited Comment: Dilemmas and Remedies 517  
Needed: More Evaluation, Not Research 563  
A Process Approach for Establishing Counseling Goals and Outcomes 571  
The Rise and Fall of the Tested Jungle 598

## RESEARCH: STUDIES, REVIEWS, METHODS

- Career Development of Youth: A Nationwide Study 97  
Closing My Last Volume 787  
Consulting with Parents 68  
Counseling Blacks 382  
Counseling Implications of Recent Research on Women 430  
Effectiveness of Paraprofessionals: The Evidence 257  
Needed: More Evaluation, Not Research 563  
Peer Counseling 228  
Personal Education 610  
Research in Counseling 792  
Research Techniques for Counselors: The Multiple Baseline 200

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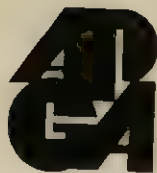
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### Counseling Techniques: Self-as-a-Model

Demonstrates a new approach to counseling being employed at the University of California, Santa Barbara. 12 minutes (order #48)



# Counseling & Humanistic Psychology



*Rollo May, a well known psychotherapist and author, discusses counseling and humanistic psychology in these two films.*

## **Rollo May on Counseling**

The symbols and myths of American society such as rationalism, individualism and competition no longer provide a satisfying context of living for its members. When the symbols and myths of a society begin to break down, anxiety develops, and people need to seek help from counselors. Their alternatives are either to try to learn to live in a state of mythlessness, or to struggle to create new and more viable myths such as authenticity and genuineness. In this film, Dr. May applies his ideas to different historical periods, and outlines the role of the counselor in an age of anxiety. 16mm, color and sound. 24 minutes. Sale price \$300; rental fee per day of use \$30.

## **Rollo May on Humanistic Psychology**

Dr. May has been a major influence in the humanistic psychology movement. In this film, he traces the historical development of humanistic psychology, and describes

the context in American psychology out of which it emerged. Dr. May discusses the components of his theory of humanistic psychology which includes: (1) psychology deals with the whole person; (2) a consideration of subjectivity is essential; (3) no science is value free (therefore, the values of the counselor must be taken into account); and (4) theory in psychology has been too influenced by abnormality (our emerging science must be based on normal people). 16mm, color and sound. 24 minutes. Sale price \$300; rental fee per day of use \$30.

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